

DRAWING DYNAMIC HANDS

BY BURNE HOGARTH

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INTRODUCTION

It is an ancient precept that the person who would be an artist must first learn to draw. Anyone who has ever wished to become an artist—who has taken those first faltering steps down the road to art—has begun with the desire to draw. It was the love of drawing that confirmed all those initial hopes. And through all the later aspirations, as long as the creative drive flourished, the urge to draw never died.

Those of us who are committed to working in the visual arts can remember our first formal training. When we first enrolled in a studio art class—whether our goal was painting or sculpture, illustration or design—we knew that drawing had to come first. Our first adventure in art began in a drawing class. Drawing, we knew without doubt, was the root of the visual image and the core of all art experience.

It is safe to say that there is no system of education for the artist that does not

offer drawing—indeed would not dare offer a curriculum without drawing. The visualizing capability would be crippled. And if we have reason to examine a student's portfolio to assess performance and potential talent, there is no firmer touchstone than the quality of the drawing.

Learning to draw means, a priori, figure drawing. If we say, "Here is an artist who can draw," we mean that this artist can draw the figure. But now a subtle distinction emerges. Among the world's artists schooled in the figure, who are the most noteworthy, who are those of the highest rank—and how do we know them? The transcendent artists were those who could draw the most difficult of all figural elements, the human hand, with authority and authenticity. And these tended to become the luminary creators.

Consider the poignant hands and form in the Expulsion by Masaccio; the ago-

nized hands of Grünewald's Crucifixion; the graciousness of Botticelli's Adoration; or the infallible simplicity of Dürer's Praying Hands.

Can anyone doubt the harmony, the perfection of forms in the figures and hands in the works of Leonardo, Michelangelo, El Greco, Rubens, Velasquez, Caravaggio, Rembrandt. . . .

Do we in our time support the canon of the figure and the criterion of the human hand? Does anyone doubt the competence of Matisse, Rouault, Braque, or Picasso to create art from the springboard of the figure? And how shall we understand Rodin in the tortured *Burghers of Calais* or the brooding *Thinker* if not by their hands?

Let us venture, speculatively, one last proposal. In all the world's art, the highest inspirations, the most lofty visual expressions center around the hand. From the earliest hands of the Aurignacian hunter to the majestic God-king of Egypt, the hand speaks to us. The hand spells resistance to tyranny and proclaims victory in the statue of Harmodius and Aristogeiton, the heroes of the world's first democracy. The hand of Adam receives the spark of life in Michelangelo's Sistine ceiling. The hand holds aloft the chilling form of Medusa's head in Cellini's Perseus. The hand of Bologna's Mercury leads our thoughts skyward.

The hand, as Rodin showed us, is the alter ego of mankind, The Hand of God.

But it is also the hand of that other creator, the artist, who, shaping the hand, creates himself.

BURNE HOGARTH Pleasantville, New York December 1976

1. FORMS AND STRUCTURES

The hand is not a flat, twodimensional shape without volume. It is a dynamic, threedimensional body form, energetic and complex, each of its forms and structures interrelated. In this chapter we will look at it from various angles in space and depth, noting its curves and rhythms and examining the bulk, sizes, shapes, and masses of its individual parts and their relation to the whole.



UPPER AND LOWER ARM

The main masses of the upper and lower arm are good examples of the principle of contraposition—one form being in opposition to, or moving in a different direction from, another. For example, the shoulder mass thrusts upward, while the direction of the biceps and triceps is frontward and backward; the forearm repeats the up-and-down direction of the shoulder and is opposed by the horizontal angle of the hand. The upper sketch shows the retracted and extended arm positions, while the lower left sketch emphasizes form planes. Observe how the contraposed masses shown in the lower right sketch produce an undulant, wavelike rhythm of crests and troughs along the entire length of the extended arm.



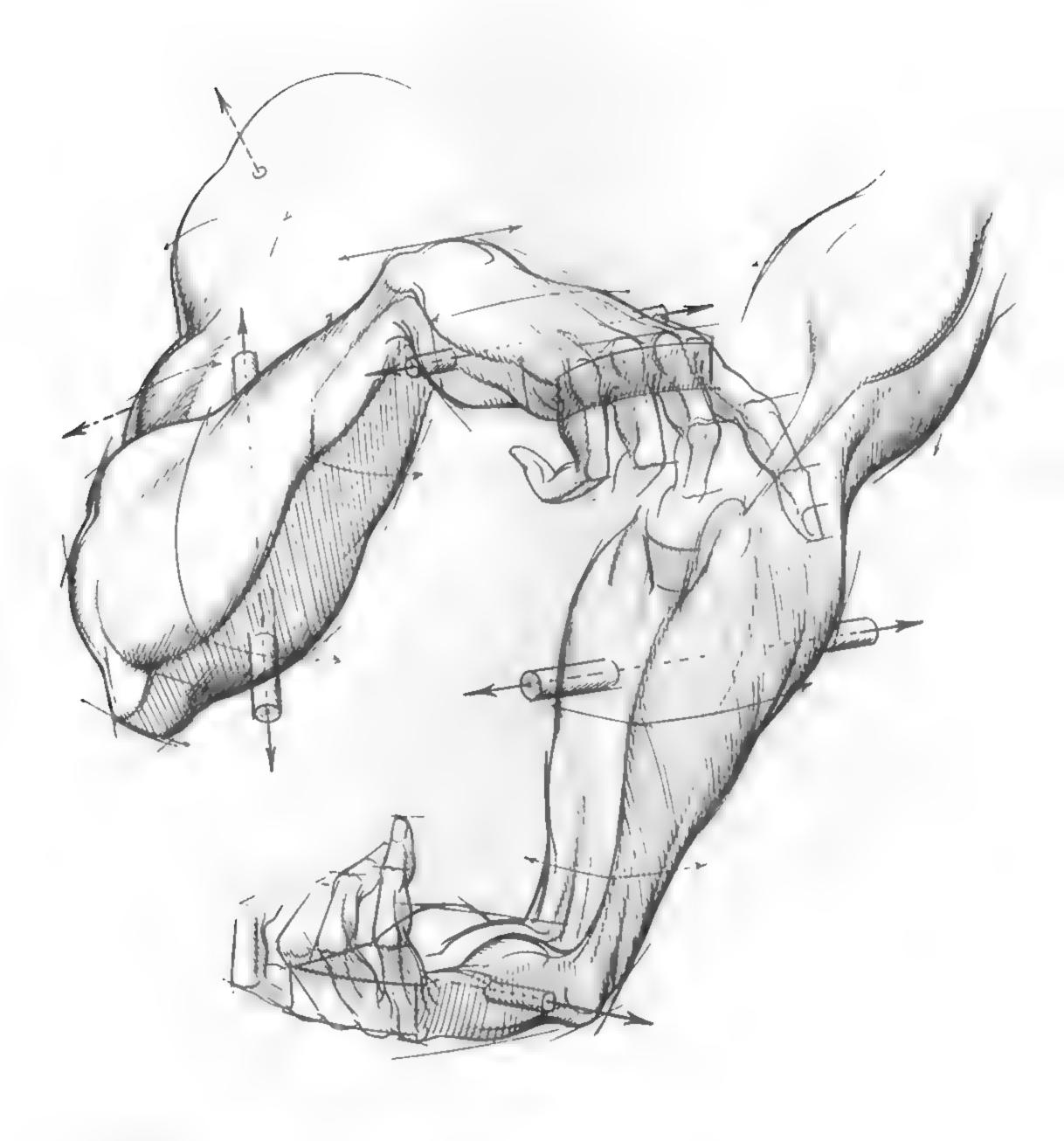
CONTRAPOSED MASSES

These drawings also show the undulant rhythms produced by contraposed masses (direction indicated by arrows). In this sequence of varied movements of the upper and lower arm, note the tendency of the forearm to lift at the upper wrist. The palm takes a decided slope downward, depending on the natural flexion of the hand.

UNDERARM CURVES

When the arm is brought up and extended forward, it curves under from armpit to elbow and from elbow to wrist. This never varies, no matter what position the entire arm may take. Note the reversed backward direction of the arm in the drawing at right. Even with the elbow raised, the double underarm curve is still present. At the end of the lower arm curve, the palm interrupts this movement with a decisive change of direction.





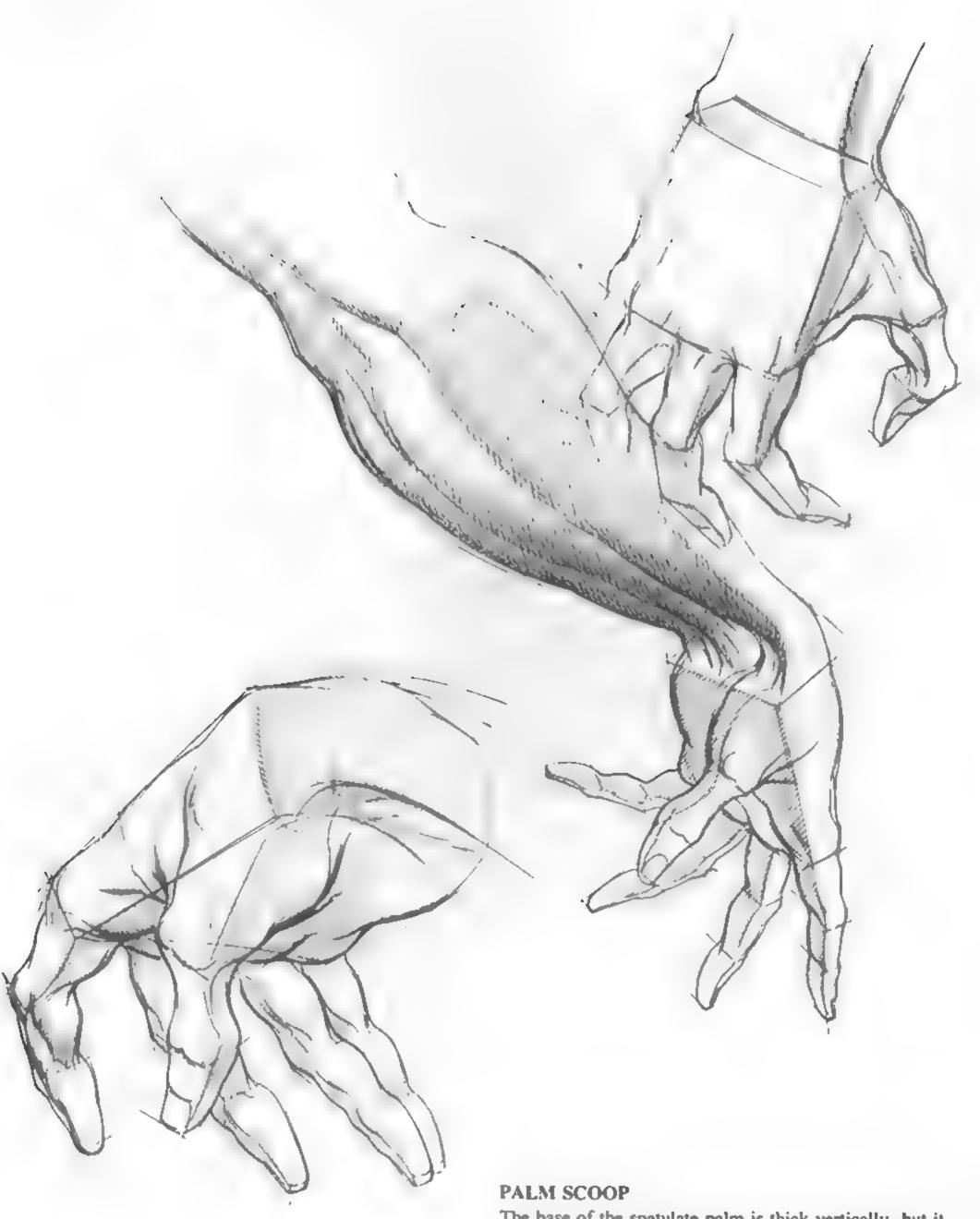
PALM WEDGE

The wrist flattens at the end of the forearm, and the palm thrusts out like a spatulate wedge, thick at the center and narrower at the front where the finger knuckles emerge. This palm wedge is the governing form of all the secondary hand structures.

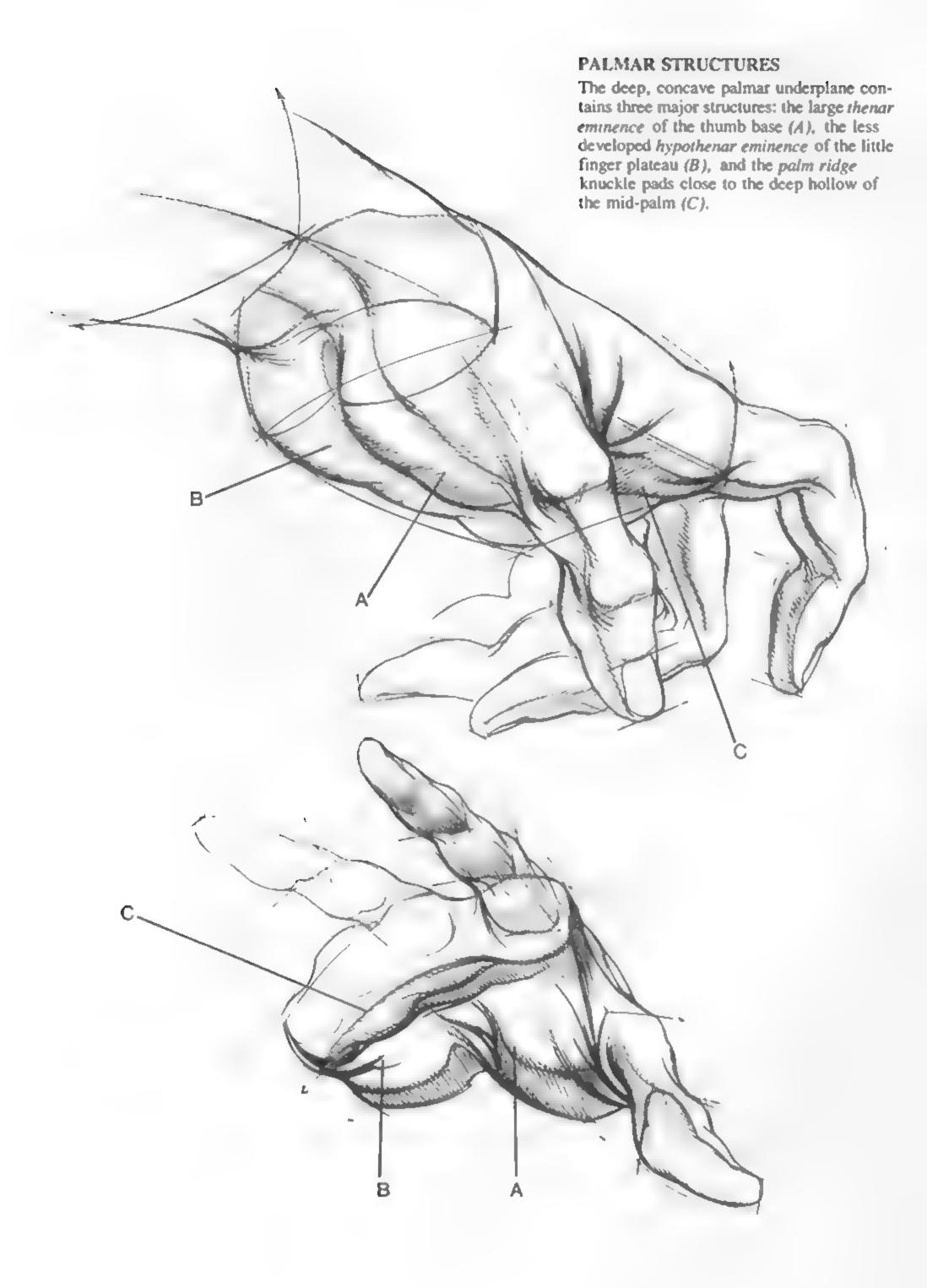
WRIST AND PALM CONNECTION

In this rear view of the flexed forearm and hand, the palm wedge is seen from its top (dorsal) side. The tapered, flat wrist is joined to the spread palm, and these two forms remain consistent in any rotational direction the arm may take. Note that the flexed arm with forearm upraised and drawn inward permits the thumb to contact the shoulder (deltoid) muscle about midpoint on its upper bulge. Should the upper arm be raised vertically, the thumb would reach into the deep pit of the deltoid.

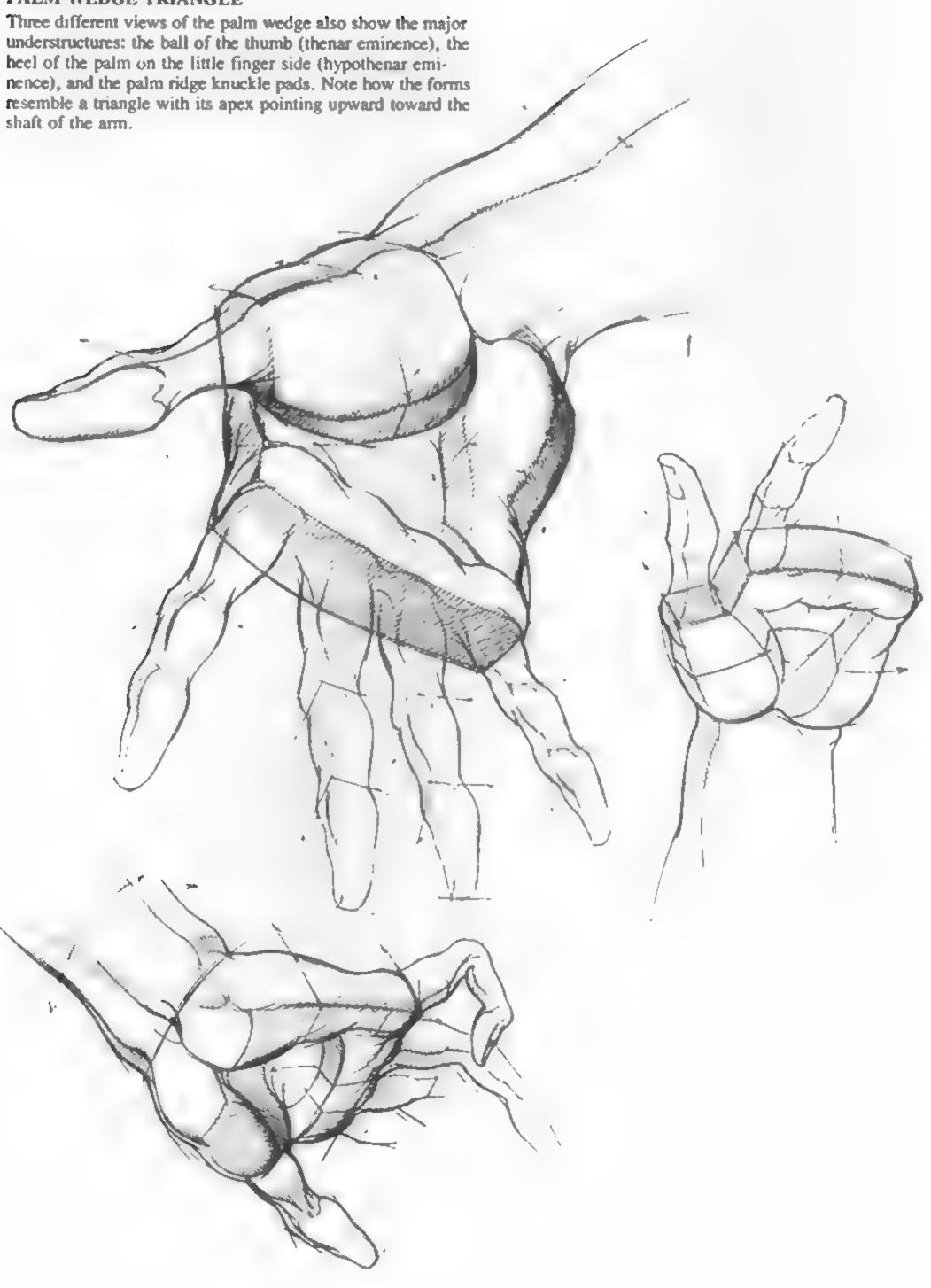


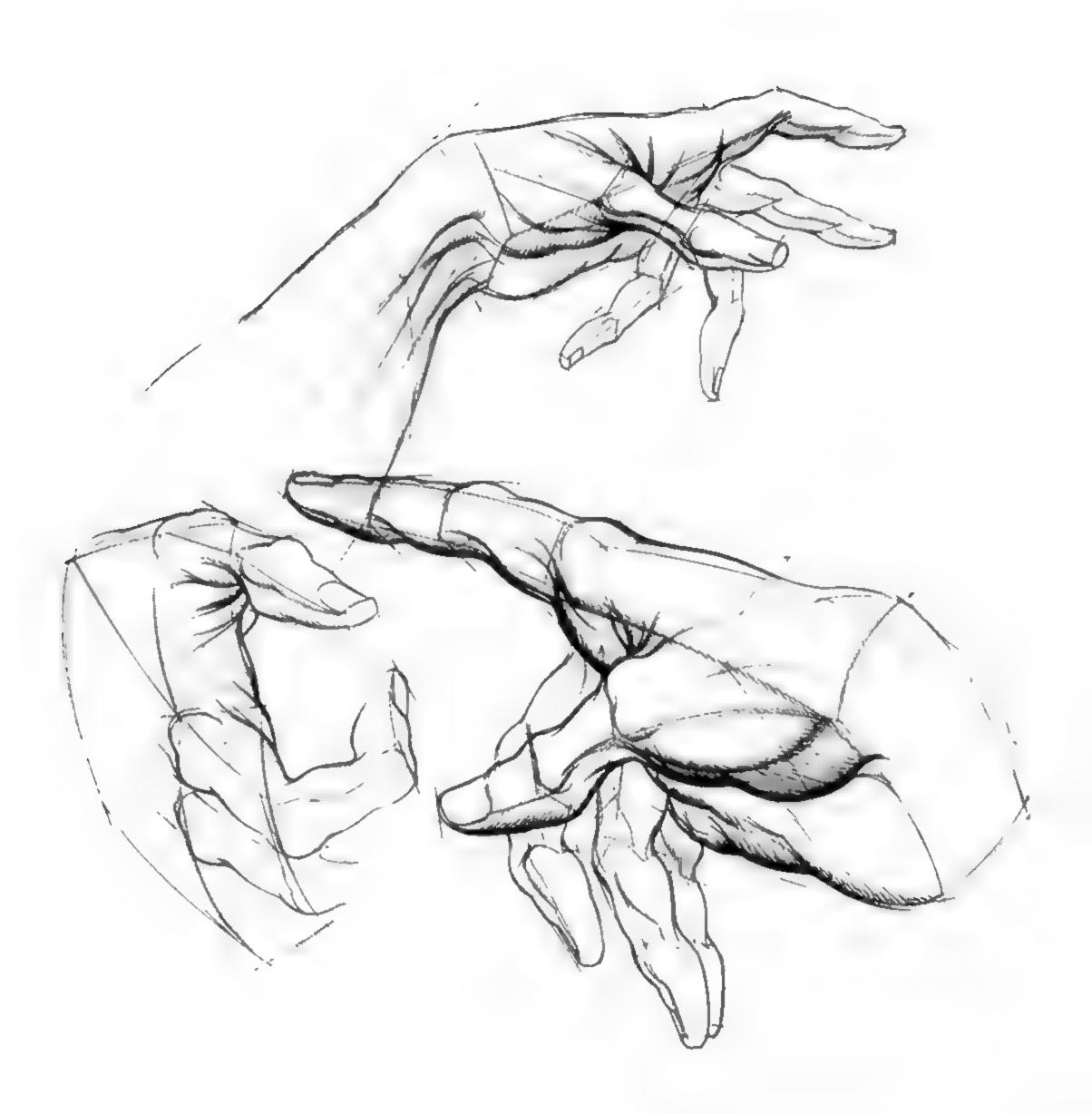


The base of the spatulate palm is thick vertically, but it spreads forward and flattens like a scoop or spade toward the front. The palmar side of the hand is hollow and domeshaped; the dorsal side is somewhat rounded also, but much less so than the palm side.



PALM WEDGE TRIANGLE



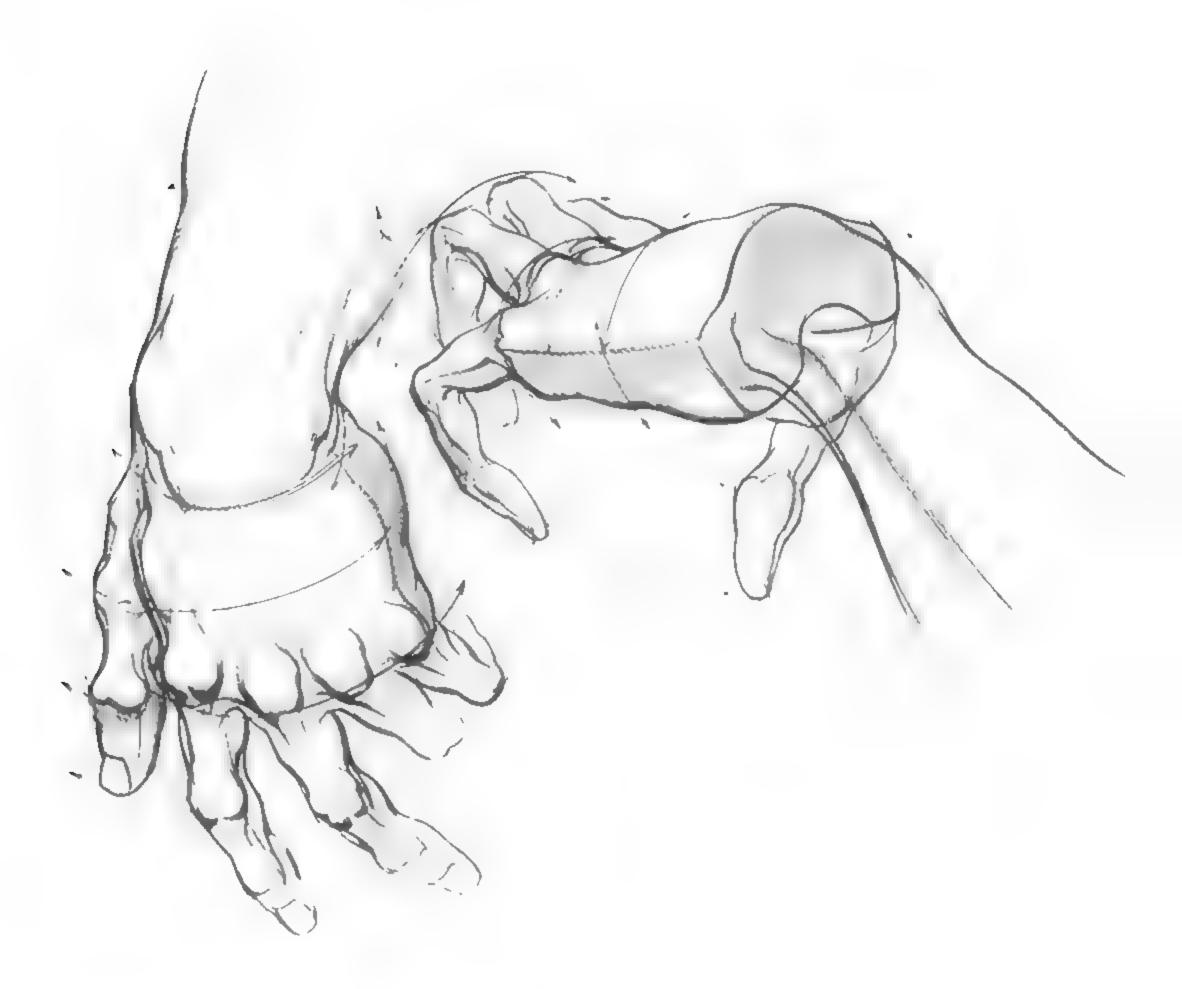


THUMB TRIANGLE

The thumb emerges from the palm wedge as a narrow triangular block supported from underneath by the fleshy, curved thenar eminence.

PALM CURVATURE

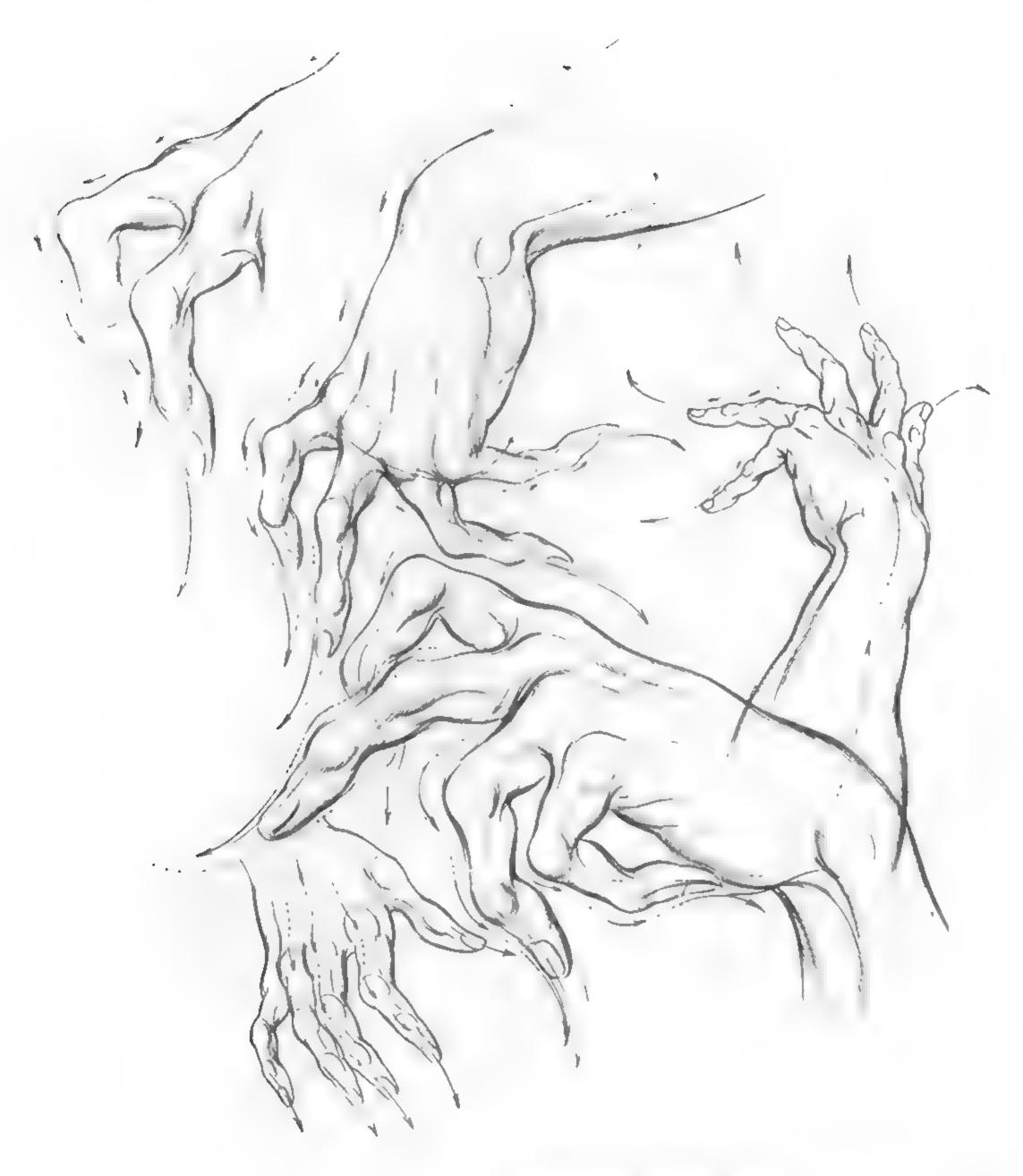
Two types of curves make up the palm wedge. The dorsal view of the hand at left shows the latitudinal arcs formed by the wrist, the palm knuckles, and the bones of the fingers. These form a sequence of ellipses, beginning at the point where the wrist joins the lower arm and continuing to the fingers. The cross section of the thick rear palm at right shows the concave palm and the longitudinal curves running lengthwise from wrist to fingers.





ROD AND BALL FORMS

As the fingers emerge from the palm knuckles, they develop three-part rod and ball forms—finger shank and knuckle capsule—as shown in the enlarged detail at center right. The rod and ball device is an easy and effective method for sketching direct hand action. Finger movements can be developed from a tentative exploration to an integrated drawing. The sketches at bottom are examples of beginning explorations before arriving at a final drawing.



RHYTHM OF FINGER FORMS

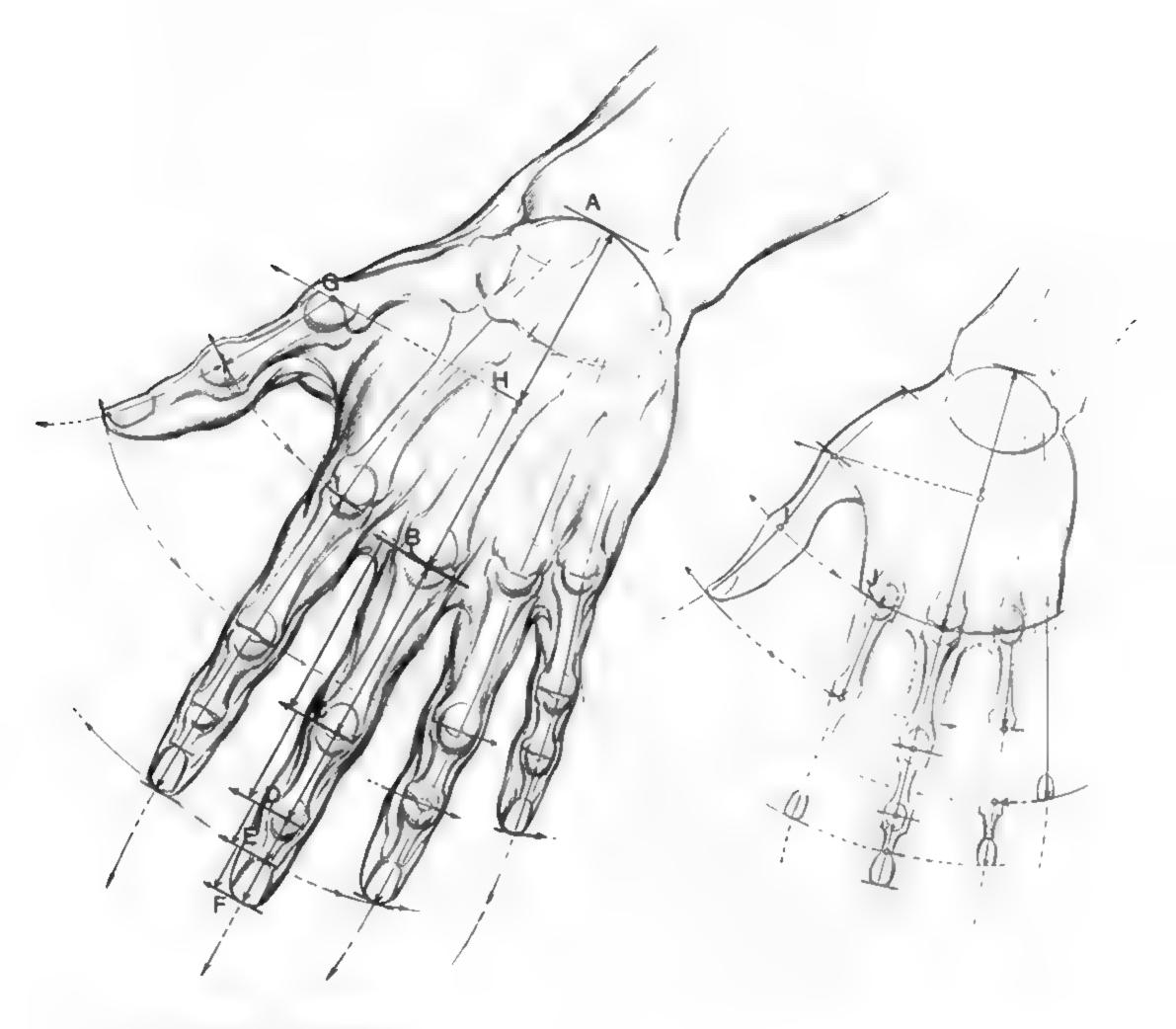
When the rod and ball forms are integrated, they exhibit the same type of crest and trough rhythm as noted earlier in the drawings of the contraposed arm masses. A decisive upswing occurs at the fingertips in a variety of elevated curves, depending on finger movement and hand position.

SYMMETRY OF FORMS



2. PROPORTIONS AND MEASUREMENTS

Anyone who has tried to draw the human figure has quickly learned that the hand is among the most complex of the body forms. To draw the hand accurately and with precision, you must know how to relate the individual parts to each other and how to unify the separate elements. A knowledge of proportions is necessary in art and should be used as a learning stage to new expressive adventures. This chapter will introduce essential measuring cues and their use in drawing the hand in correct proportion. Once the interrelated measurements are understood, you can create dynamic and alive hands without needing a model. You will also see the underlying symmetry and unity of the structures of the hand.



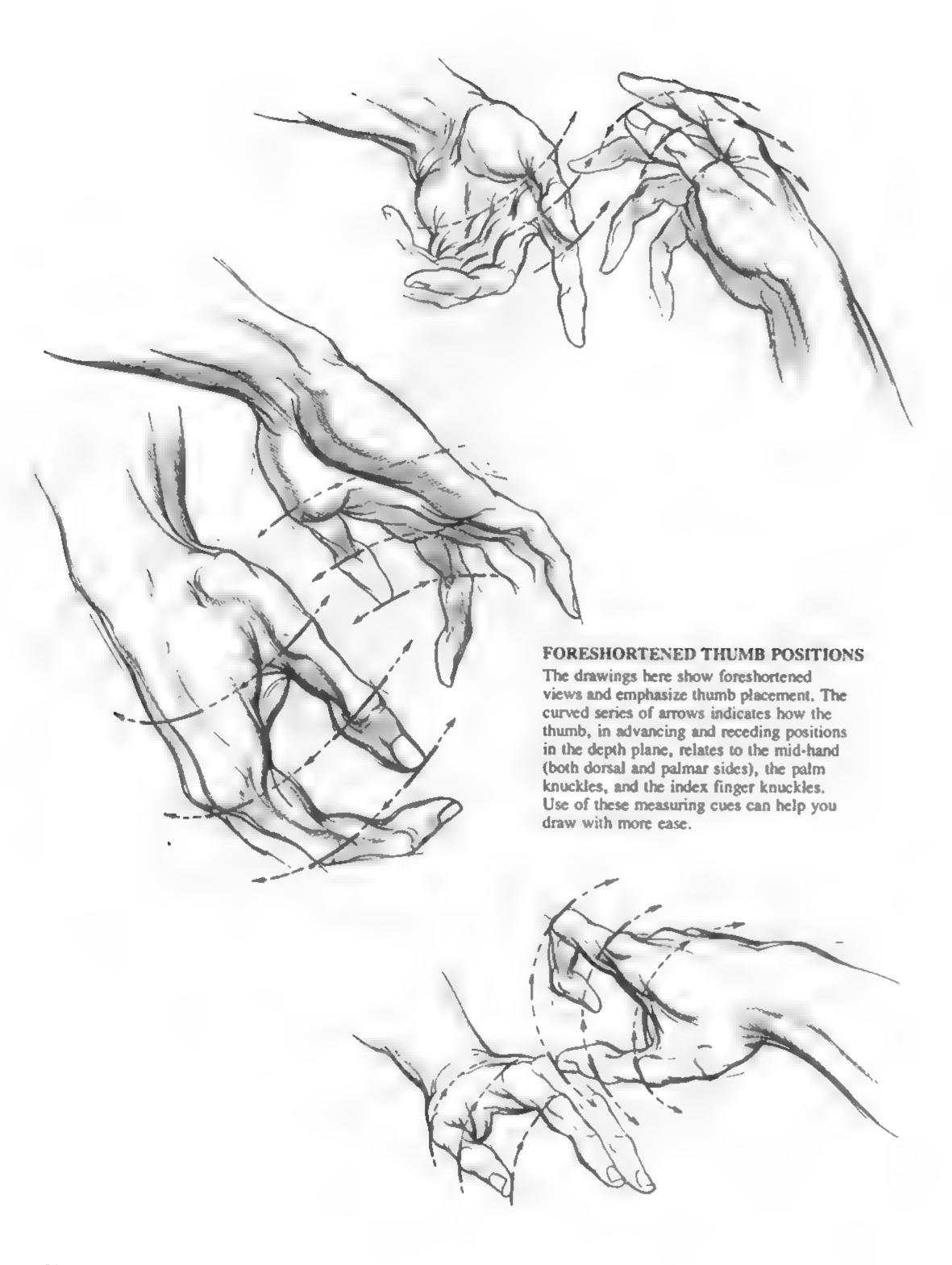
PALM AND FINGER MEASURES

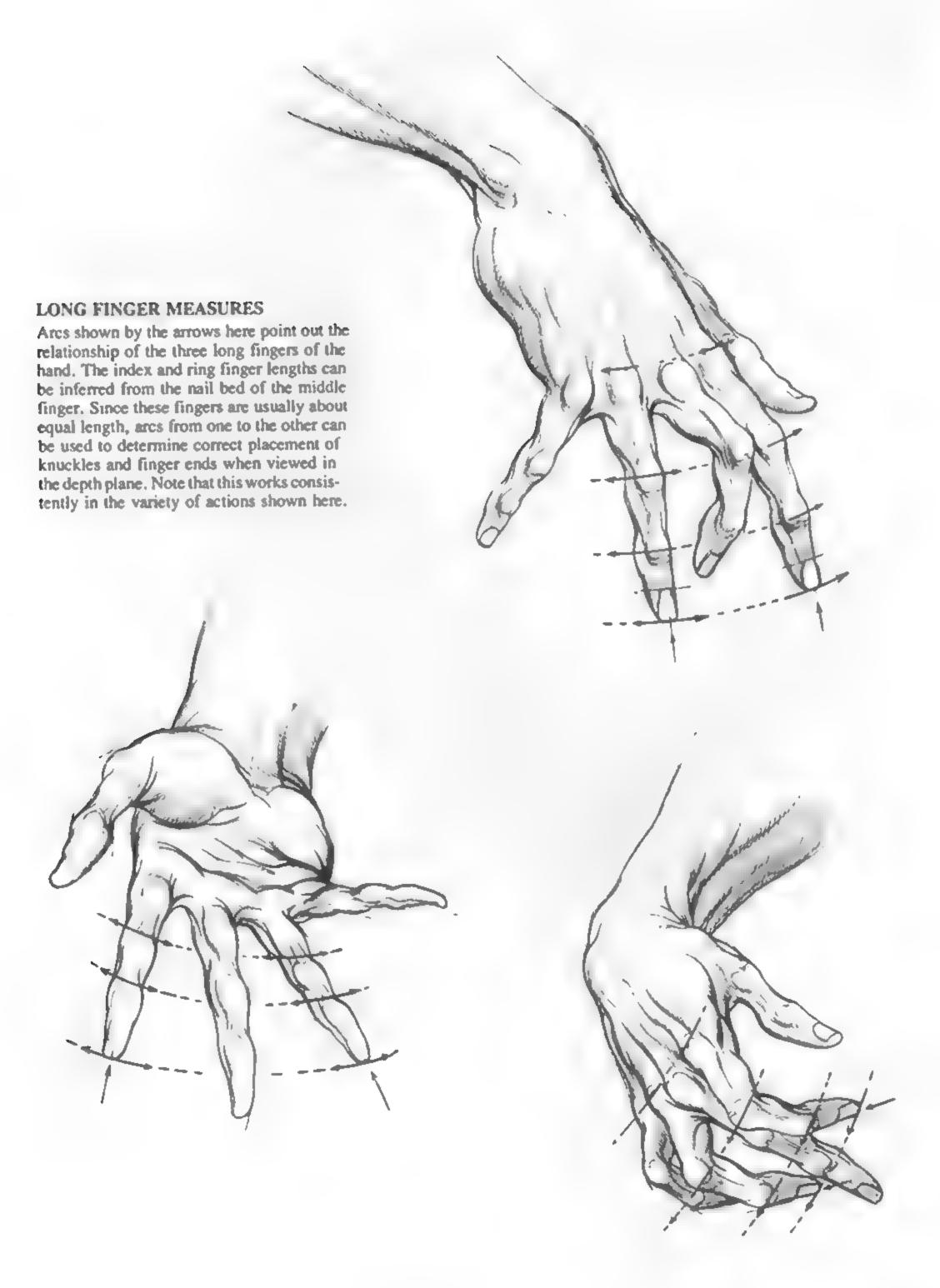
The palm is the governing form of the hand, and it varies in shape from rectangular to square. From it, proportions and measurements of the entire hand can be determined. Note two important measuring cues shown here. First, the palm begins at the center of the wrist (A) and extends to the base of the middle finger (B), which forms part of the palm knuckle bulge. Second, the thumb emerges from the palm as a narrow triangular wedge extending at about a 25- to 30-degree angle. The base of the triangle (G) aligns with the vertical midpoint of the palm (H).

The palm at its longest point (A to B) is the same length as the middle finger (B to F). Every section of the middle finger is half the length of the one above it. Thus the first phalanx and finger knuckle (B to C) is half the length of the entire finger; the middle phalanx and second knuckle (D to F) is

half the length of the first phalanx; and if the terminal phalanx $(D \ to \ F)$ is divided, we have the length of the fingernail $(E \ to \ F)$.

Other symmetries also exist. The schematic drawing at right shows the index and fourth fingers to be equal in length. Check this in both drawings and on your own hand. Also, the tips of the index and fourth fingers terminate at the nail bed of the middle finger. Not all people show these equal lengths exactly, but a large enough majority have them to make this a feasible premise. Now note how the end of the little finger aligns with the knuckle of the terminal phalanx of the fourth finger. The thumb also aligns with the palm and palm knuckles—the index finger knuckle (1) lines up with the knuckle at the midpoint of the thumb (1), and the tip of the thumb lines up with the first phalanx of the index finger.







LITTLE FINGER MEASUREMENTS

The tip of the little finger lines up with the last knuckle of the ring finger; thus finger placement can be easily integrated in all positions when this measuring cue is used. Correct positions of other fingers are based on measuring cues already described in previous drawings. For example, observe the alignment of thumb knuckle with mid-palm in the drawing at extreme right.

ANGLE OF ULNA AND LITTLE FINGER KNUCKLE

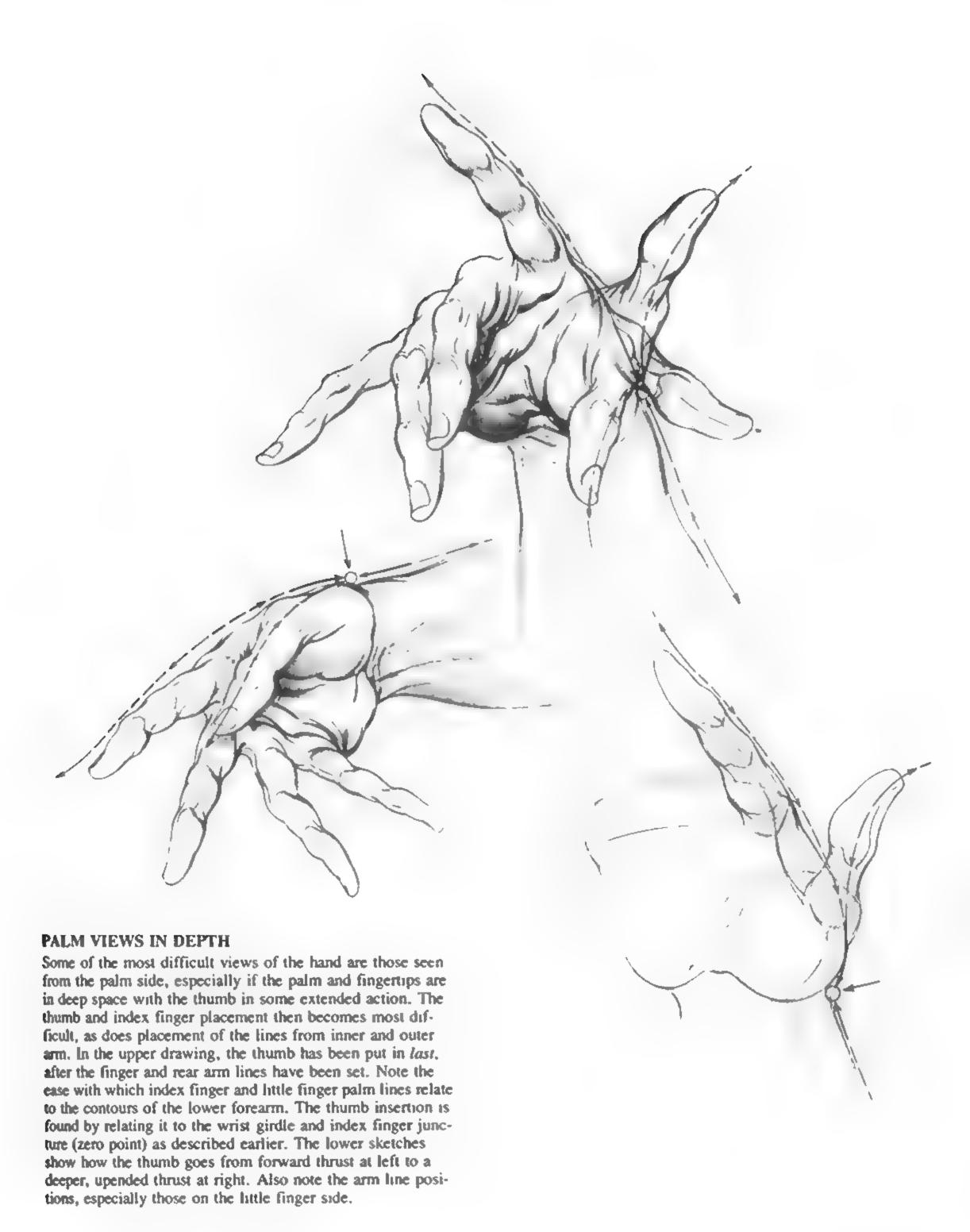
The large palm knuckle on the dorsal side of the hand, from which the little finger emerges, is directly in line with the ulnar protrusion, the base of the outer bone of the arm protruding at the wrist. This important relationship marks a transition point be-

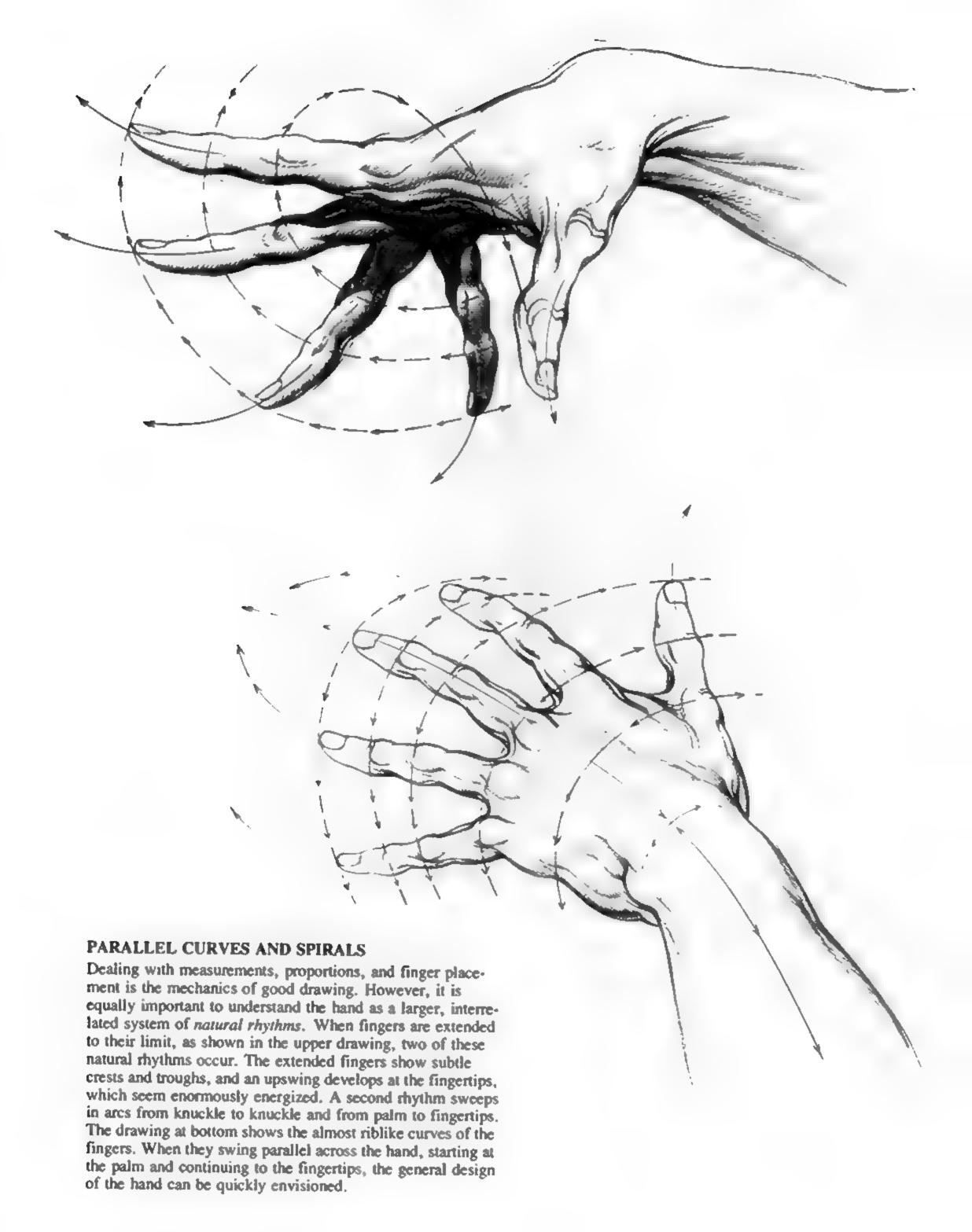


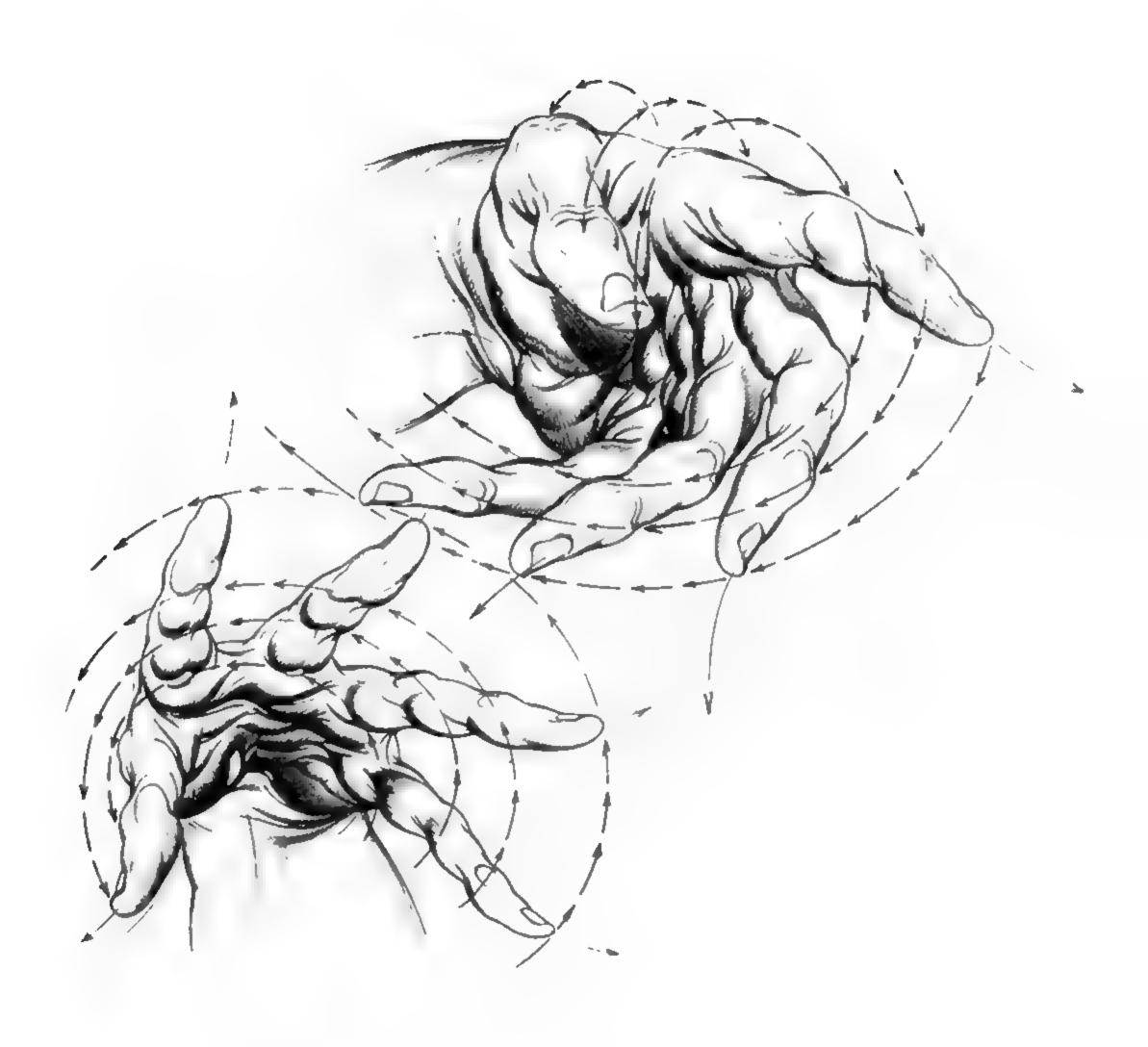
INSIDE PLANES OF HAND AND ARM

The top sketch shows the line marking the side edge of the index finger knuckles and on up the arm. This line defines the transition point between top and side planes of the inside of the hand and arm. It rises high at the wrist and palm and then courses down to the fingertips. The juncture with the wrist (zero point between arrow flows) occurs at the end of the inner forearm bone, the styloid process of the radius. The line of the thumb rises at an angle to meet the line of the index finger at the wrist girdling line. The juncture at the styloid process is invariable. The two lower sketches show how this point of intersection is consistent even in different hand positions and different views





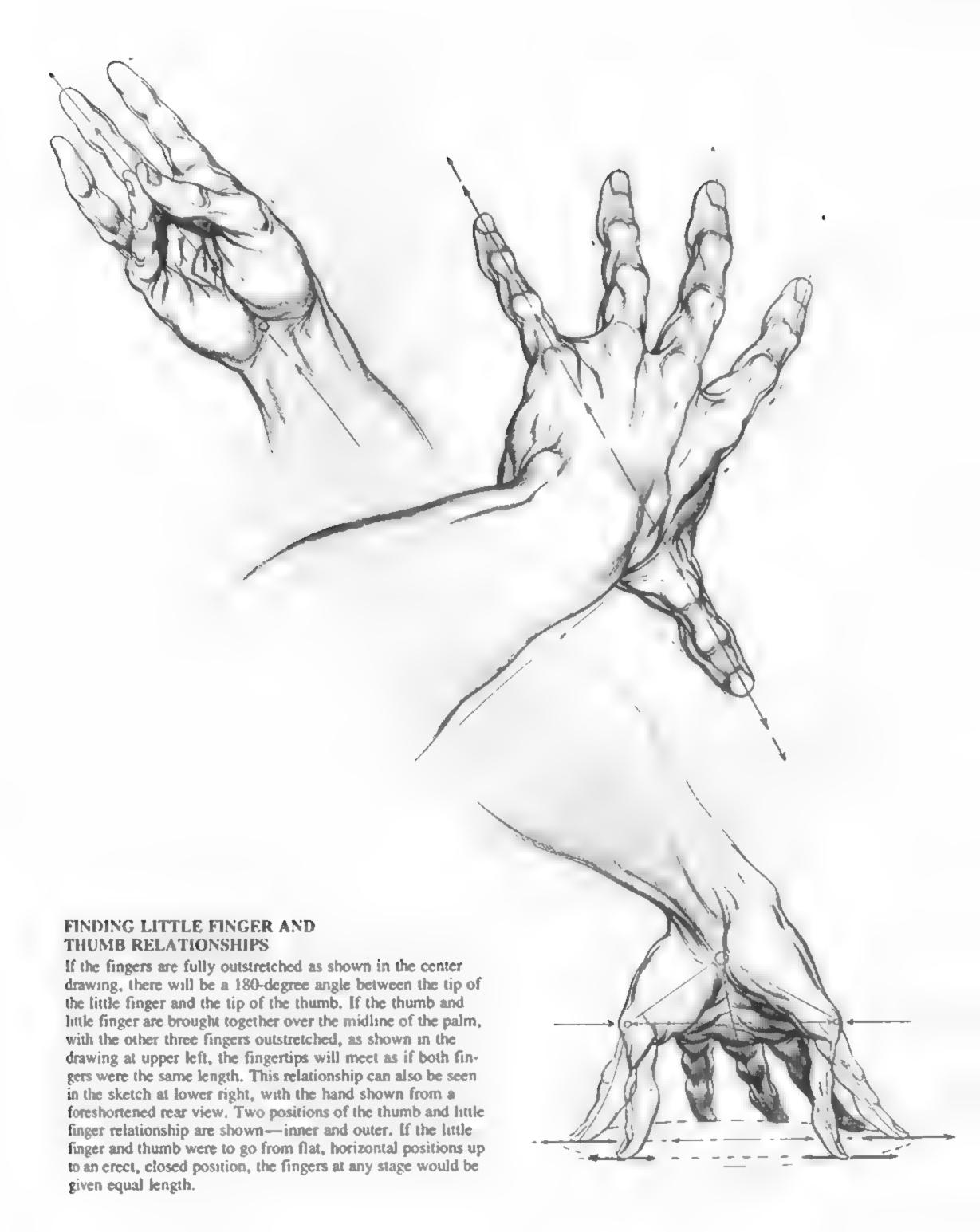




SPIRAL AND ARC RHYTHMS

Awareness of the elliptical spirals of the hand may produce spontaneous insight into form and can help you organize form when the hand is seen deeply foreshortened or with projected or closing fingers, as in the two drawings here. Note how vitalized the fingers look here. It doesn't matter at what point you start to lay in the natural rhythms, beginning with a free sketch first or with knuckle positioning, the sense of this rhythm will help you greatly in your sense of the design.

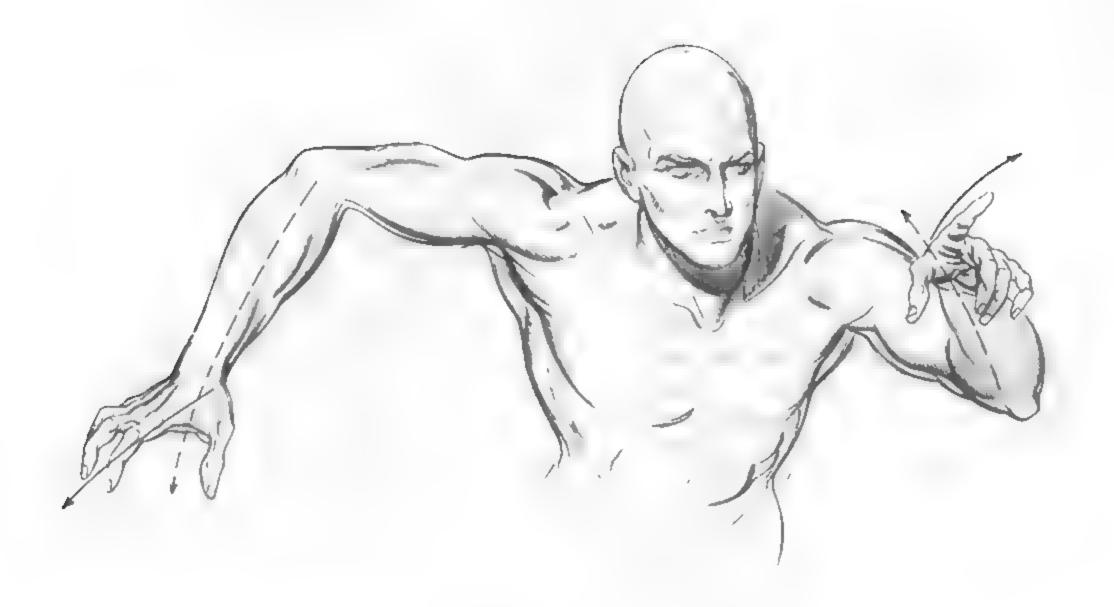




FINGERS IN STRESS POSITIONS

In the upper, deep palmar view, with fingers stressed in full extension, note how the little finger and thumb appear to be tips of symmetrical horns, lying at the end of a great wavelike are (see smaller schematic at left). The lower sketch shows fingers more outstretched, with thumb and little finger moving toward each other but still maintaining the wavelike form.



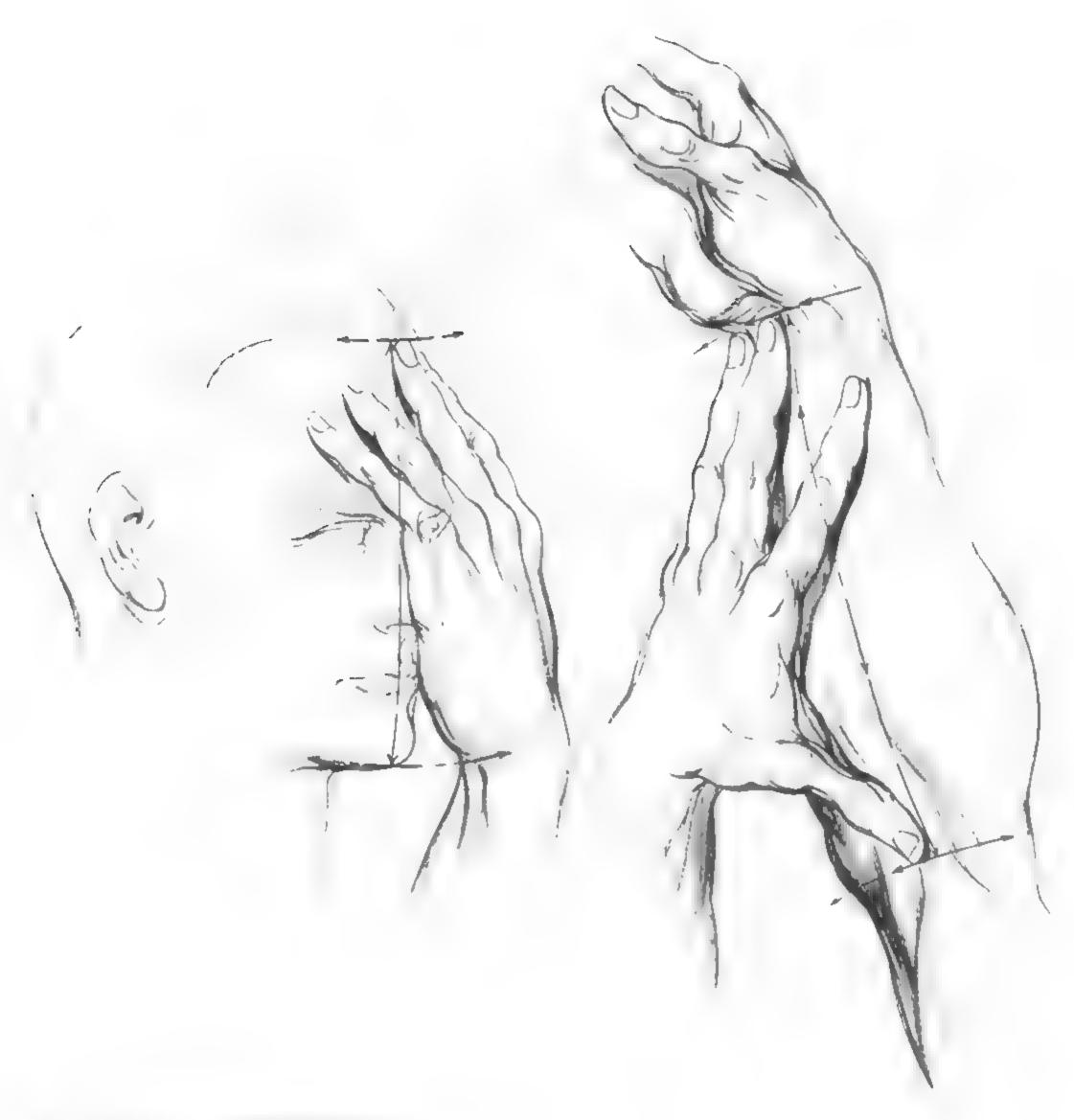


SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS

All hands and arms have a special behavioral characteristic which they also share with the legs—they tend to curve inward. This may account for the consistent undercurve of the arms mentioned earlier in Chapter 1. As the arms move forward in action, the tension projects the hands outward from the lines of the arms, as shown in the drawing above. Note especially the directional arrows on the forearms and the splayed index finger thrusts.

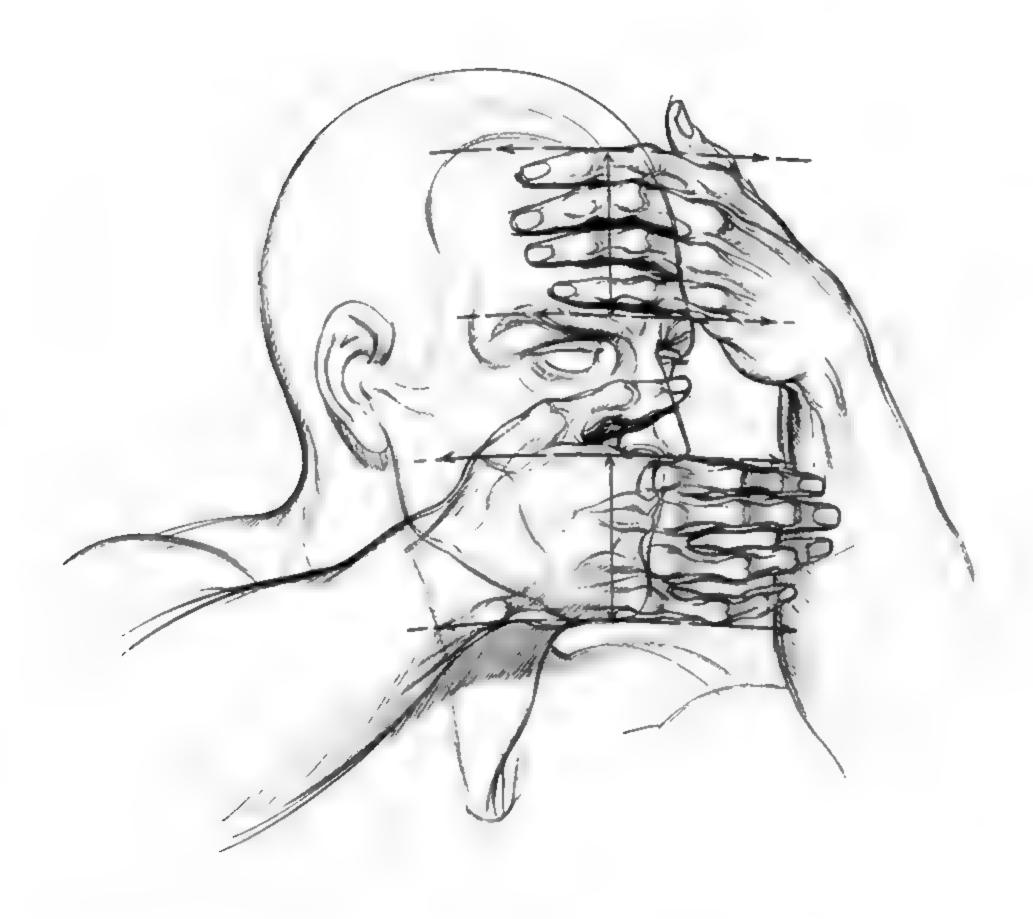
Note in the drawing below that fingernails of receding fingers rotate from an almost straight-on view, shown by the index finger, to a curve on the little finger that is almost out of sight. The thumbnail, however, rotates according to the action of the hand or the action of the thumb.





RELATIONSHIP OF HAND MEASURES TO FACE AND ARM

If the base of the palm is level with the chin base, as shown at left, the fingers will reach the brow, and the long middle finger will touch the hairline. If the thumb is placed in the inner arm elbow depression, as shown at right, the hand will span from that point to the base of the palm. A knowledge of these proportions will be extremely useful when dealing with the figure as a whole.

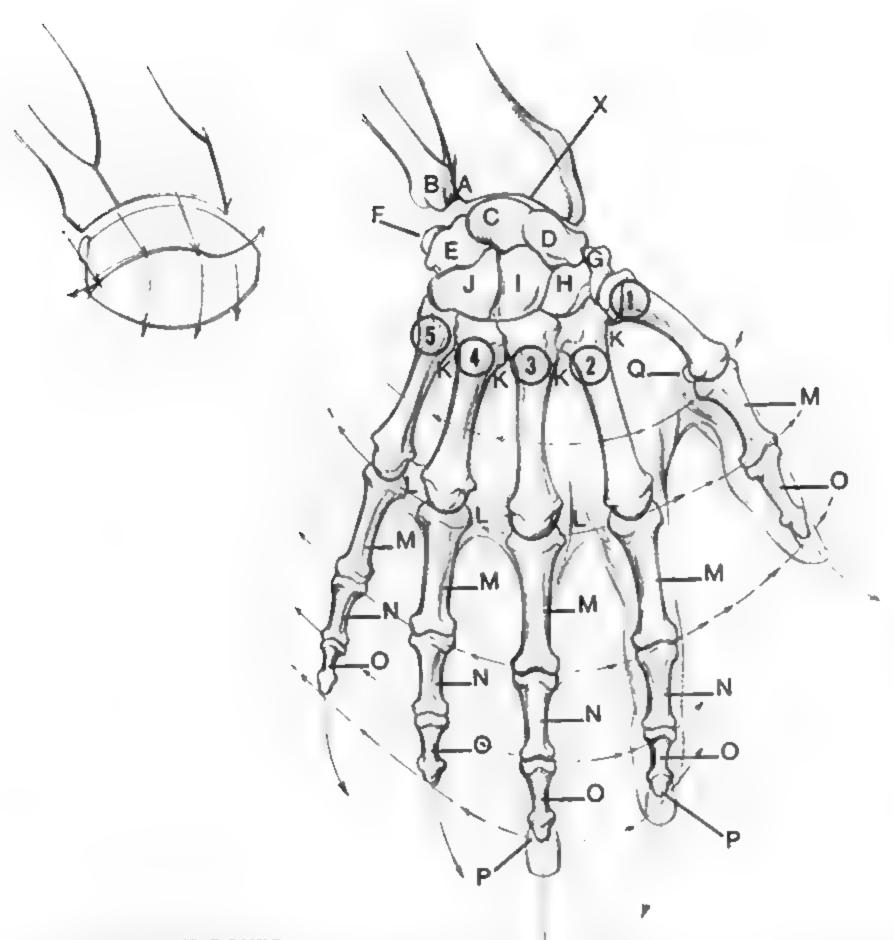


HAND AND FACE MEASUREMENTS

In a final note on measured relationships, if the hand is placed in side position and laid on the brow, it will fit almost exactly between the hairline and the eyebrows. In some cases, a large hand will also cover the nose root. The palm can also be placed in side position in contact with the nose base, and the side of the palm will reach the base of the chin. These measuring cues can be especially useful when drawing multiple figure compositions.

3. ANATOMY AND STRUCTURE

When the artist studies human anatomy, he is not usually pursuing the same goals as the medical doctor or the scientist. He is searching for visual form which can be translated aesthetically and augmented imaginatively. However, knowledge of anatomy is essential for an understanding of various attitudes, postures, and movements. It allows the artist to truly understand the surface contours of the body because he knows the forms and structures underneath. It also teaches him why the surface forms appear as they do. Hopefully you will not be so caught in the study of the parts that you forget the rhythmic and unified whole. As you go through this chapter, you'll see the efficiency, order, and symmetry of the forms of the hand and the integrated way in which all work together to give the hand its wide variety of movement and response.



WRIST AND HAND BONES

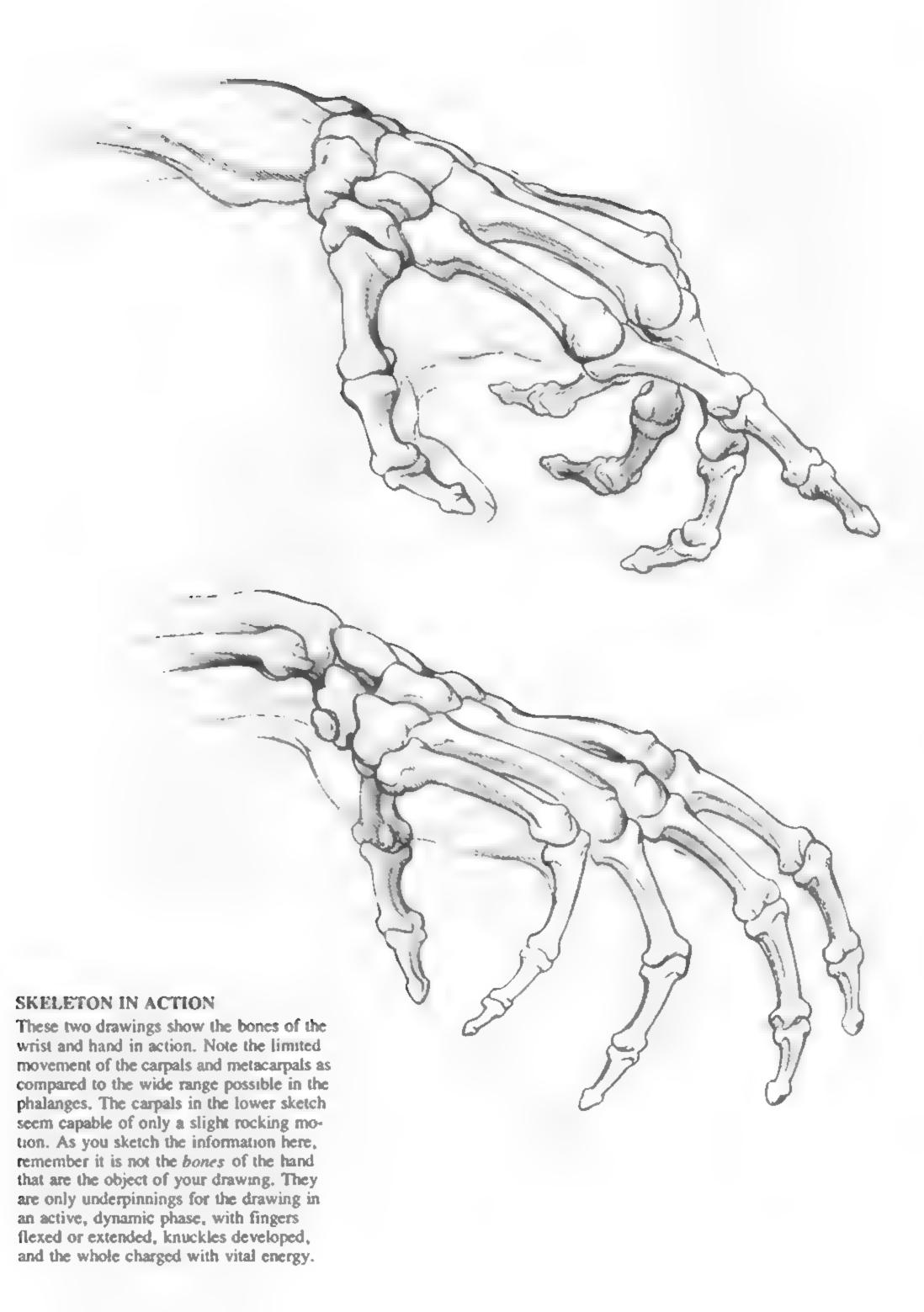
The dorsal side of the hand, including the wrist, has a particularly bony surface, with many protrusions lying just under the skin. The hand begins above the wrist at the point where the radius (A) and ulna (B) form the pivotal radio-ulnar joint. Note that only the radius articulates with the three top wrist bones (carpal bones) to form the radio-carpal joint (X).

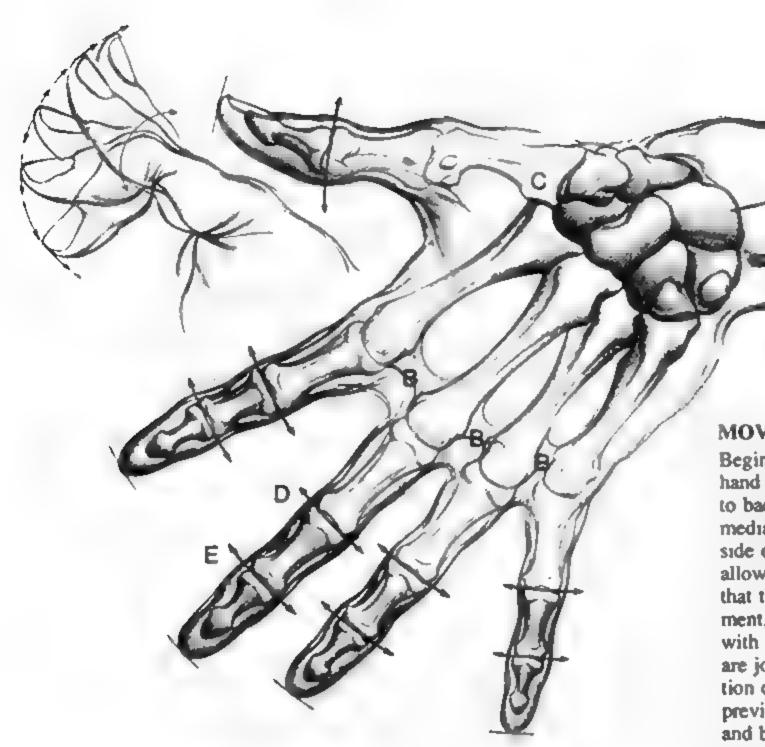
Below the radio-carpal joint, the eight compact wrist bones as a unit make up the carpus, formed in a close-set ellipse, as seen in the schematic at right. Individually, they are known as carpals, and each has a separate name. The central lunate bone (C) tends to elevate the upper tier composed of the scaphoid bone (D), a boat-shaped form on the inside; the moon-shaped lunate bone; the wedge-shaped triquetrum bone on the outside (E); and the pea-shaped pisiform bone (F). Four larger carpals make up the lower tier. Articulating directly with the thumb is the saddle-shaped trapezium bone (G); contacting the index finger is the boot-shaped trapezoid bone (H); next, the keystone-shaped capitate bone (I); outside, the hooked hamate bone (I).

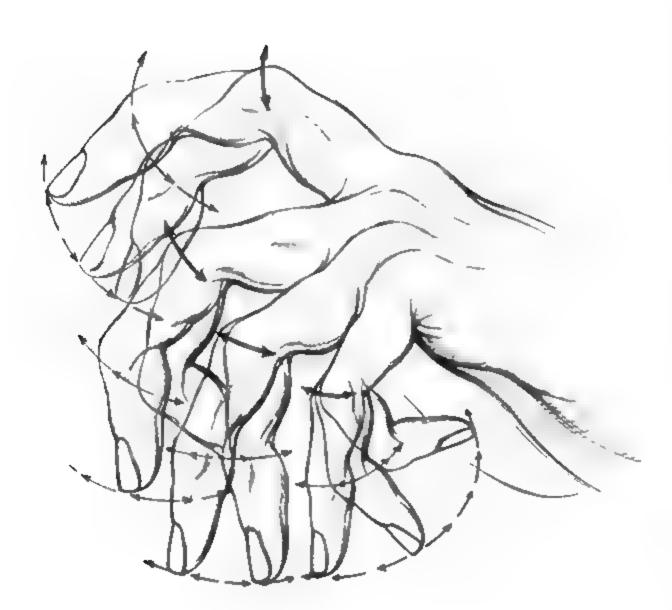
Attached to the carpals are the metacarpals (collectively called the metacarpus). These bones of the palm have no

individual names but are simply identified by number. The thumb is the first metacarpal, the index finger, the second metacarpal, and so on. They have characteristics of long bones, with a shaft and two ends, the upper end articulating with the carpals and the lower end attaching to the phalanges or finger bones. The carpals and metacarpals form the palm and are greatly limited in movement, since they are bound closely at their bases by the metacarpal ligaments (K) and at their heads by the intermetacarpal ligaments (L). The exception to this is the first metacarpal of the thumb. It is attached to the trapezium by a capsular ligament only, which allows it much wider activity than the other four.

Attached to the metacarpal bones are the phalanges, or fingers, of the hand. Each finger is called a phalanx, and each phalanx has three units—the proximal phalanx (M), the medial phalanx (N), and the terminal phalanx (O). The thumb again is the exception, having no medial phalanx. The terminal phalanx has a horny, shell-like substance emerging from it called the unguis (P) or fingernail. Two tiny bones scarcely worth mentioning, almost blended with the ligaments and surface tissue, are the sesamoid bones (Q) lying on the lower inside surface of the first metacarpal of the thumb.







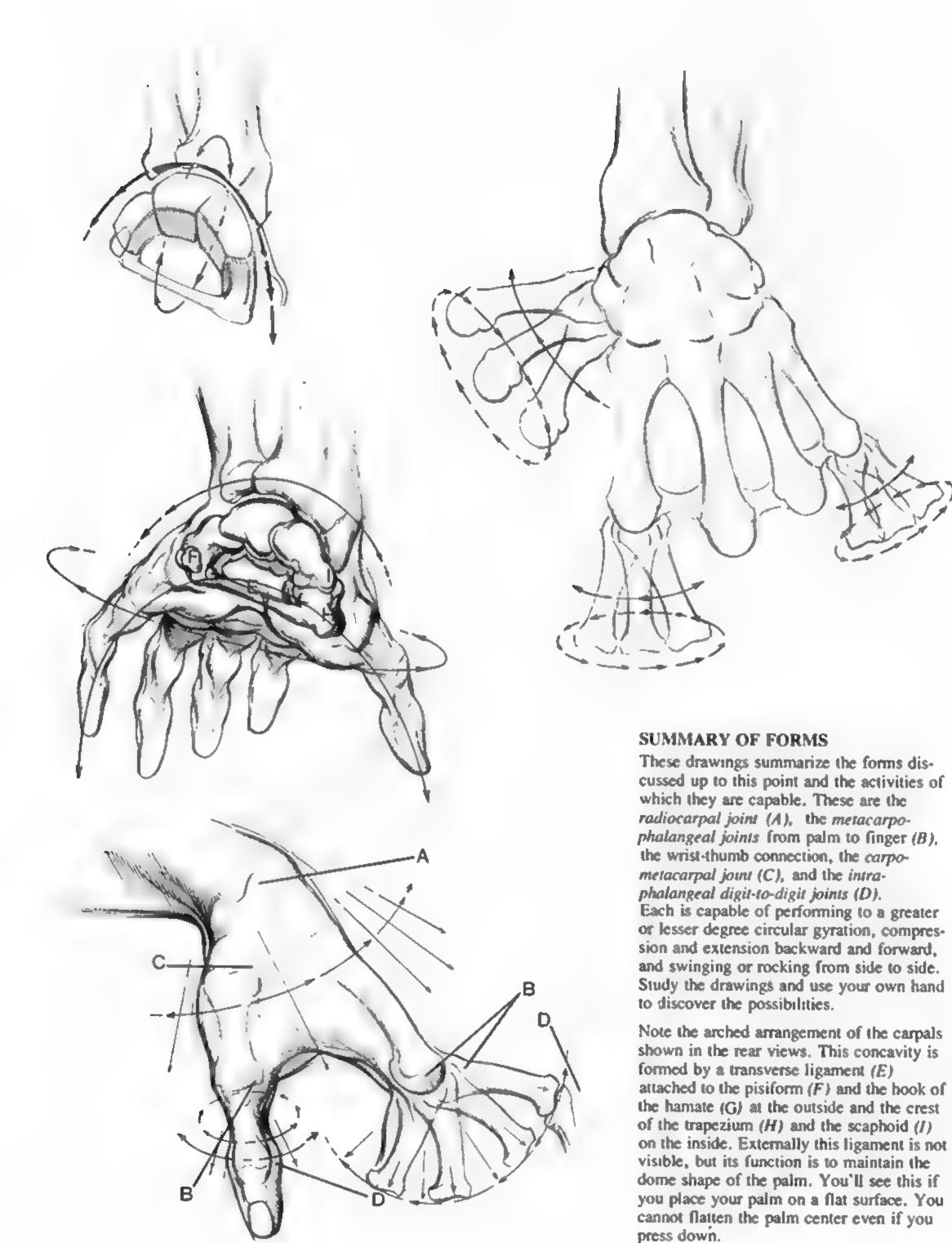
MOVEMENT POSSIBLE

Beginning at the radiocarpal joint (A) the hand can move back and forth (from front to back), from side to side, and at intermediate or oblique angles, either side to side or front to back. This last possibility allows the hand to swivel or rotate. Note that the ulna is not involved in this movement, since only the radius is in contact with the carpals. Because the carpal bones are joined very closely, only a gliding motion can occur, however, as noted in the previous drawing, a slight rocking forward and backward is possible because of the curve of the two tiers.

The large hand shown here is drawn with light and dark areas. The wrist bones and the finger bones from the second joint down are accented, as are the base joints of the four metacarpal (palm) bones. All other areas are kept light. The darker areas show the forms and joints which perform a limited movement; the lighter areas delineate forms which have freer movement.

The four long metacarpal bones attached to both wrist bones and intermetacarpals are so constrained by the intermetacarpal ligaments (B) that movement between them is negligible. The exception is the high thumb joint at the trapezium wrist bone (C), which is capable of much more freedom since no ligament controls it. The interphalangeal joints (D, E) on the middle and terminal forms of the fingers, darkened with transverse arrows on the full-hand drawing, are capable of only forward and backward movement.

Note in the action sketch of the thumb at upper left that the characteristic movement of the distal phalanx of the thumb is toward and away from the palm. This movement is the same for all phalanges of the other four fingers, as shown in the action drawing below. From the middle to the end joints, they can perform only a hinge movement.



RIGHT HAND, DORSAL VIEW

- 1. TENDON OF EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS
- 2. TENDONS OF EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS
- 3. HEAD OF ULNA
- 4. ANNULAR LIGAMENT
- 5. ORIGIN OF EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS
- 6 ABDUCTOR DIGITI MINIMI QUINTI
- 7 TENDON OF EXTENSOR DIGITI MINIMI
- 8. TENDONS OF EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS
- 9. TENDINOUS INTERJUNCTURES

- 10. INTERPHALANGEAL WEBBING
- 11. FINGERS:

FIRST, POLLEX (THUMB)

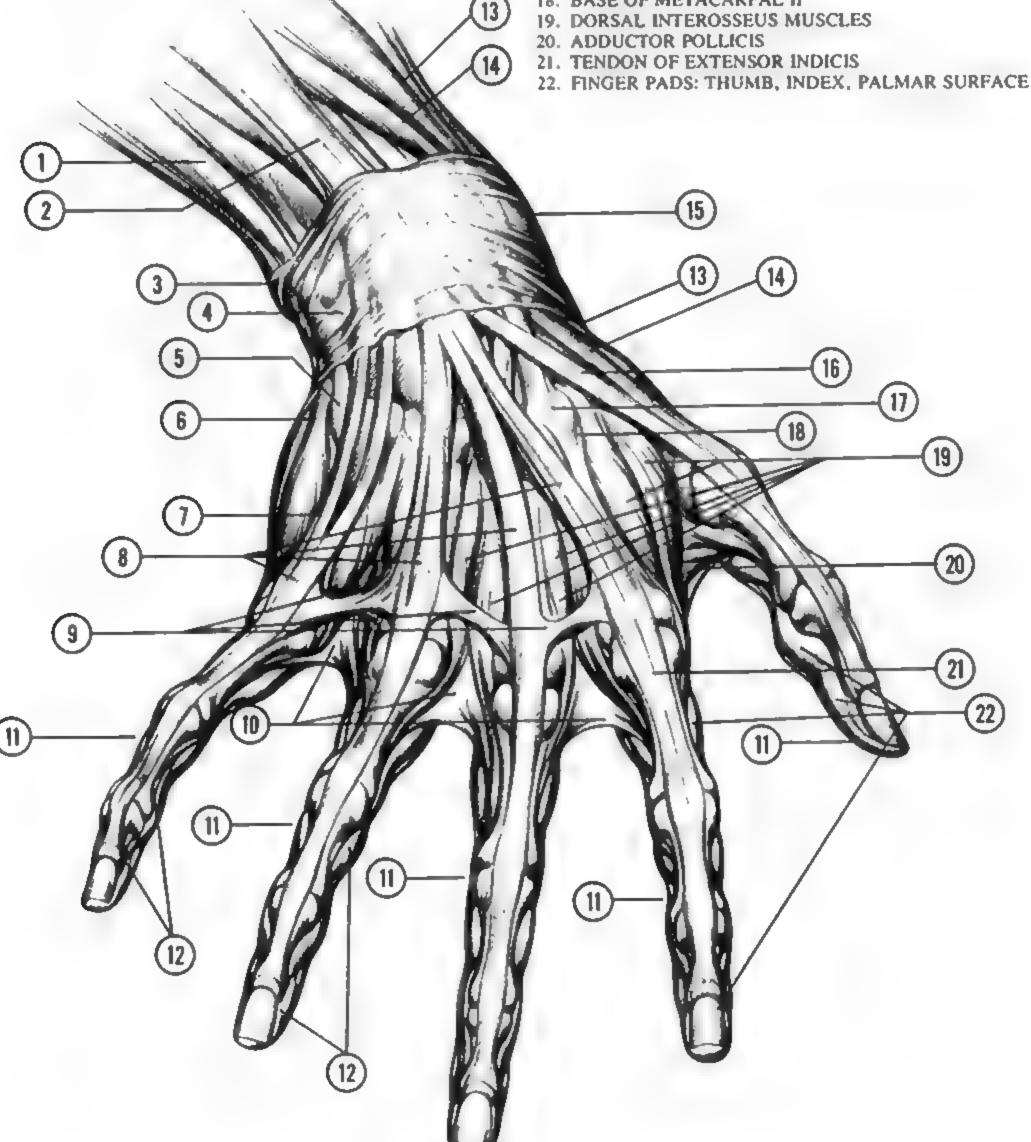
SECOND, INDEX

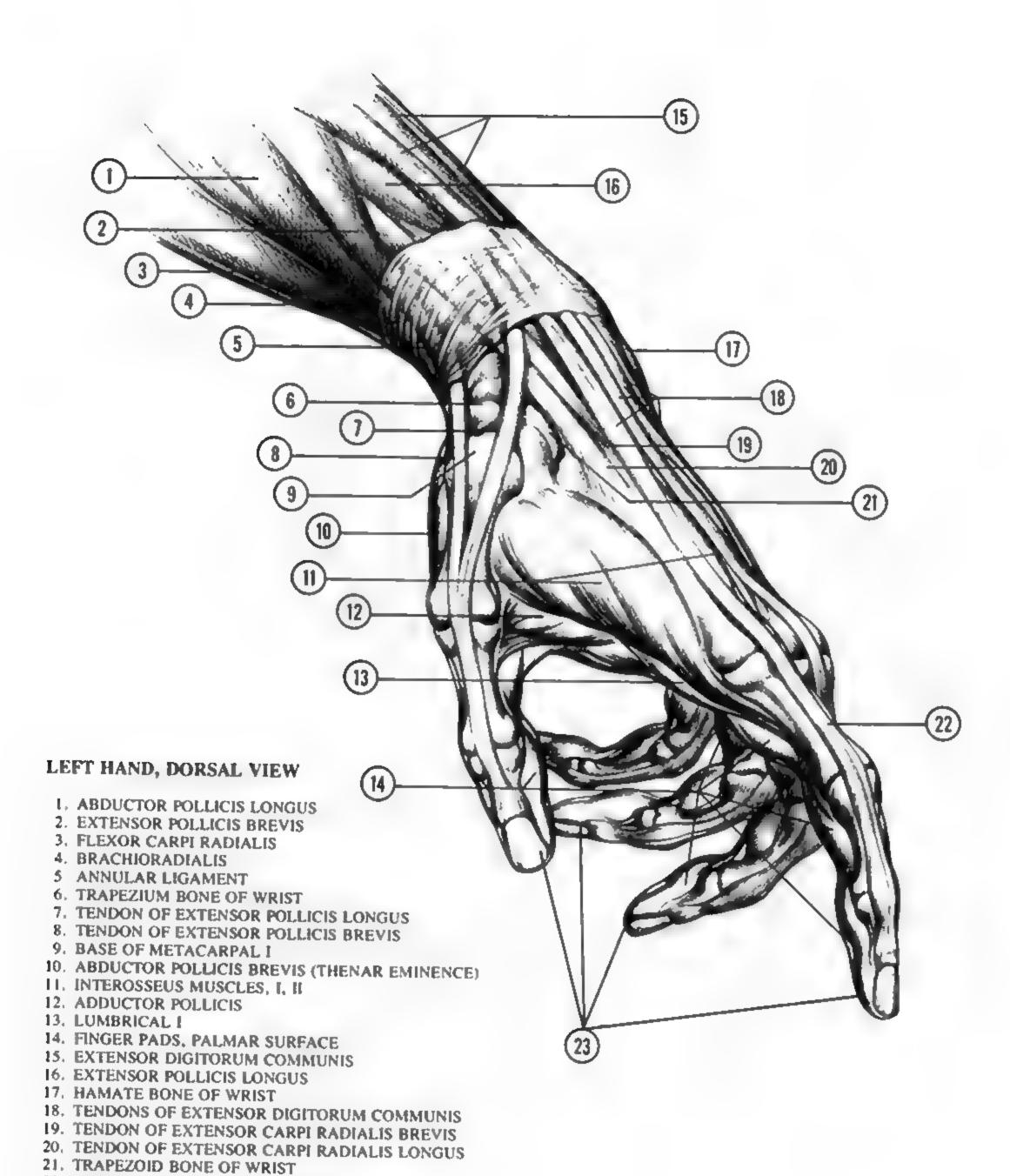
THIRD, MEDIUS (MIDDLE)

FOURTH, DIGITUS ANNULARIS (RING)

FIFTH, DIGITUS MINIMUS (LITTLE)

- 12. FINGER PADS, PALMAR SURFACE
- 13. ABDUCTOR POLLICIS LONGUS
- 14. EXTENSOR POLLICIS BREVIS
- 15. STYLOID PROCESS OF RADIUS
- 16. TENDON OF EXTENSOR POLLICIS LONGUS
- 17. ORIGIN OF EXTENSOR CARPI RADIALIS LONGUS
- 18. BASE OF METACARPAL II





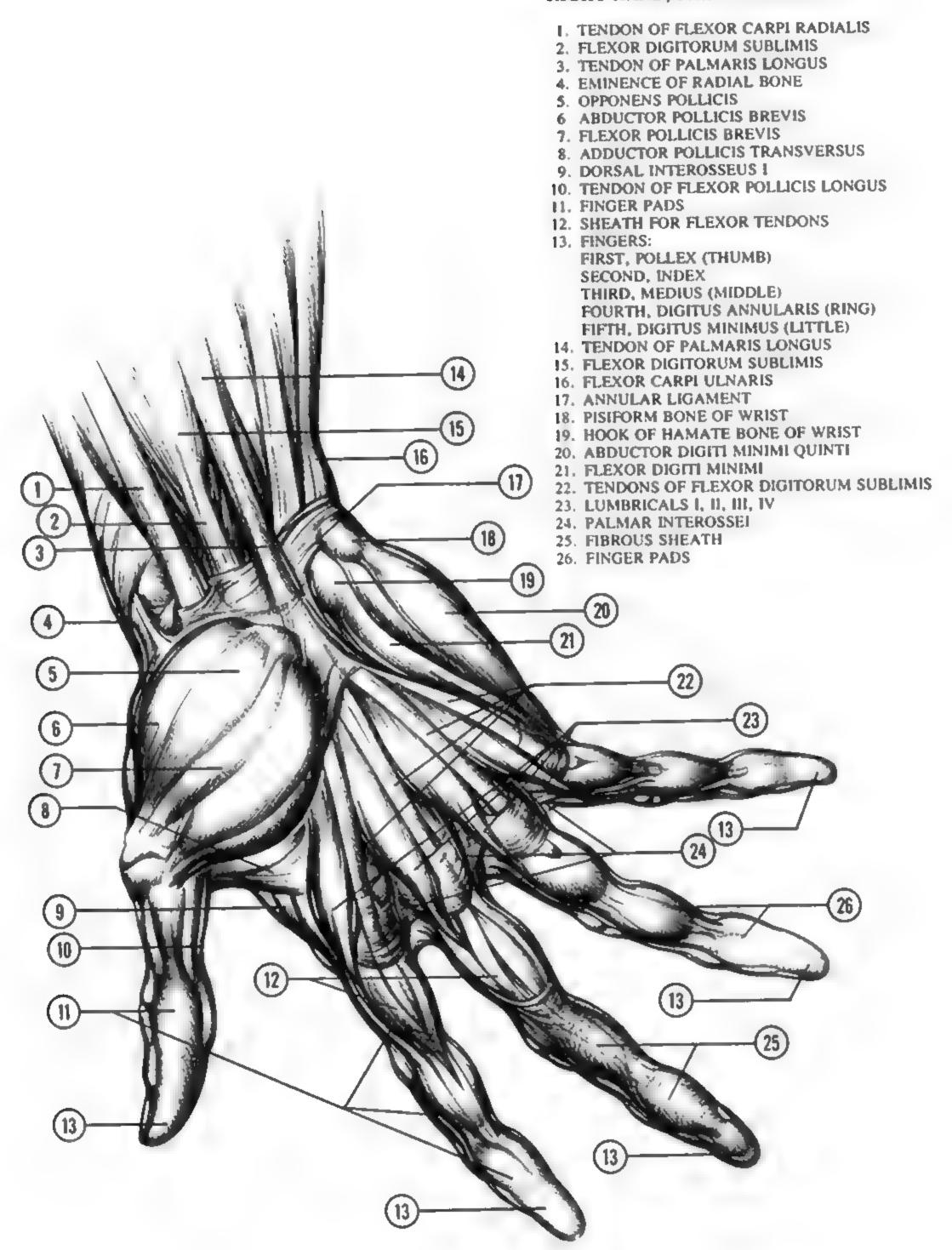
23. FINGERS:

FIRST, POLLEX (THUMB) SECOND, INDEX THIRD, MEDIUS (MIDDLE)

22. TENDON OF EXTENSOR INDICIS

FOURTH, DIGITUS ANNULARIS (RING)

RIGHT HAND, PALMAR ASPECT



LEFT HAND, DORSAL ASPECT, SIDE VIEW

- 1. EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS
- 2. ANNULAR LIGAMENT
- 3. EMINENCE OF LUNATE BONE OF WRIST
- ■. TRIQUETRUM BONE OF WRIST
- 5. HAMATE BONE OF WRIST
- 6. ORIGIN OF TENDON OF EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS
- 7. BASE OF METACARPAL V
- 8. DORSAL INTEROSSEUS
- 9. TENDINOUS INTERJUNCTURE
- 10. TENDONS OF EXTENSOR DIGITORUM COMMUNIS
- II. FINGER PADS
- 12. FINGERS:

FIRST, POLLEX (THUMB)

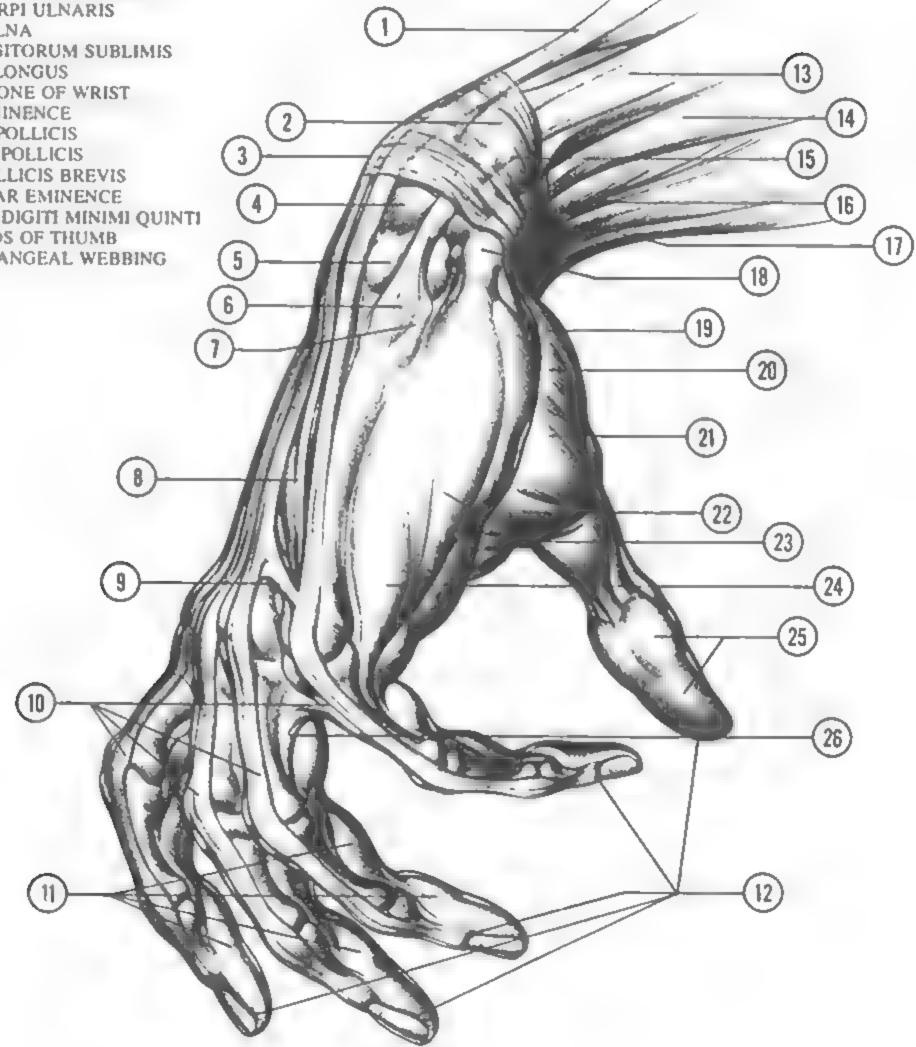
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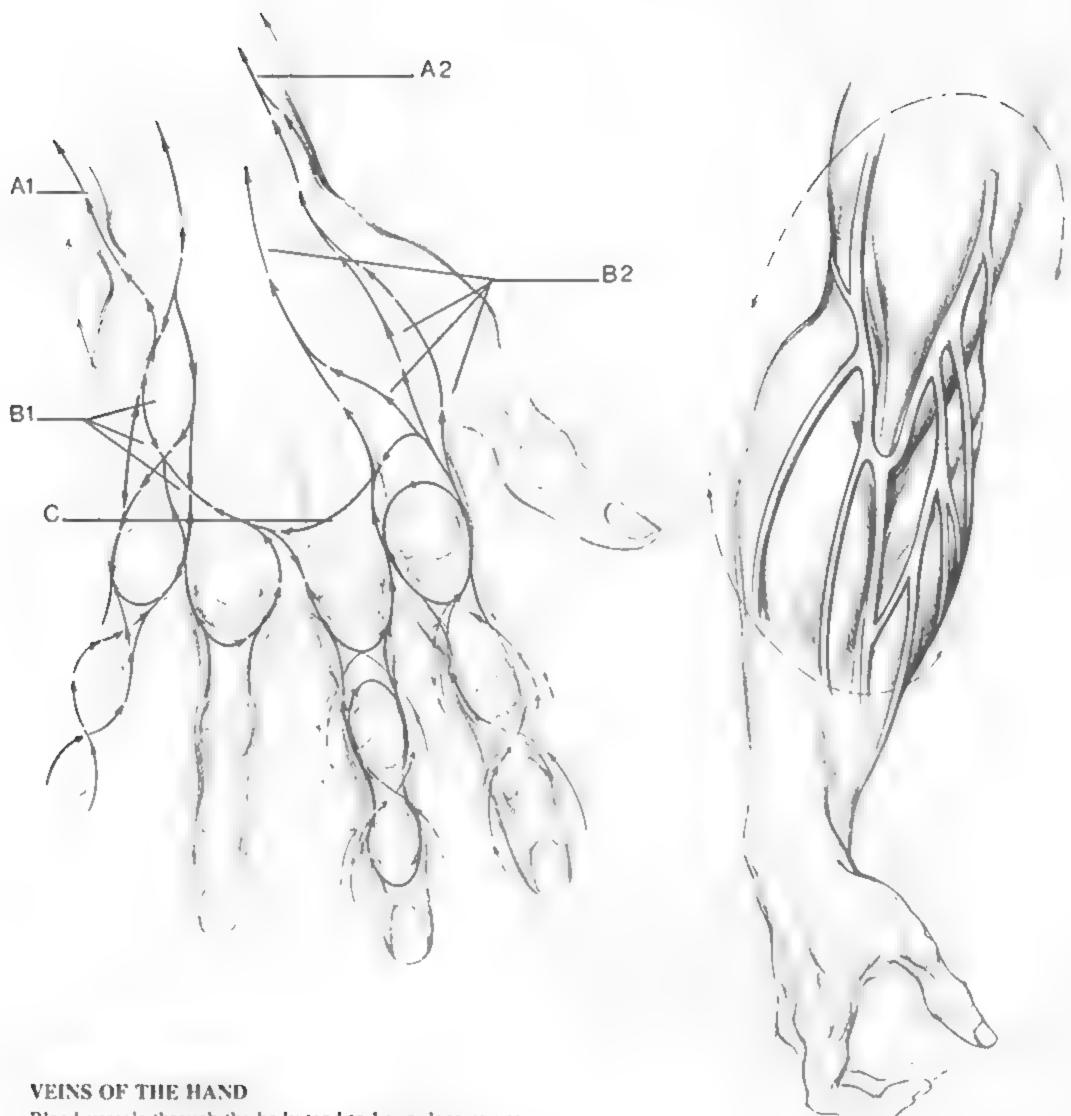
THIRD, MEDIUS (MIDDLE)

FOURTH, DIGITUS ANNULARIS (RING)

FIFTH, DIGITUS MINIMUS (LITTLE)

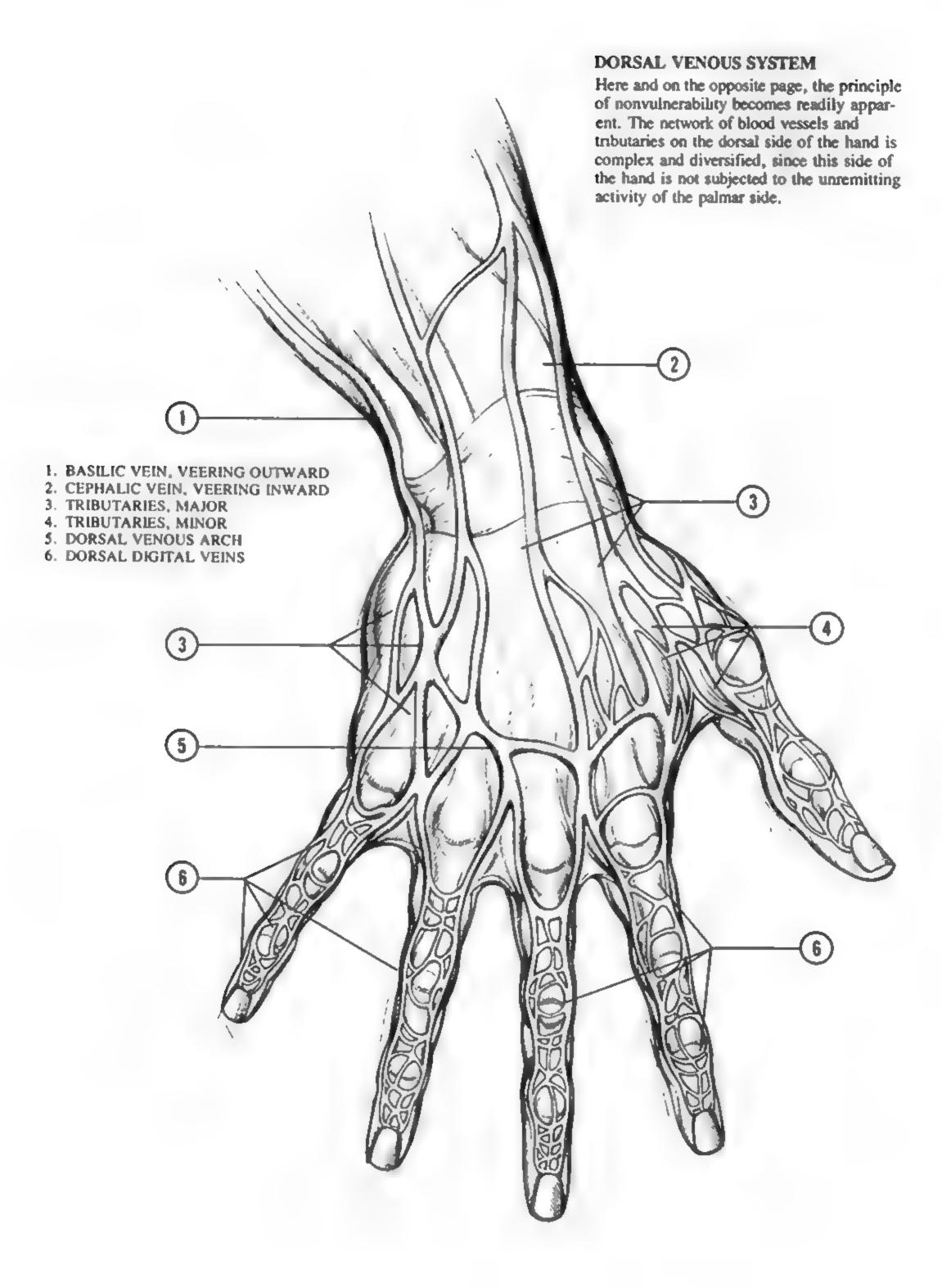
- 13. EXTENSOR CARPI ULNARIS
- 14. FLEXOR CARPI ULNARIS
- 15. HEAD OF ULNA
- 16 FLEXOR DIGITORUM SUBLIMIS
- 17. PALMARIS LONGUS
- 18 PISIFORM BONE OF WRIST
- 19 THENAR EMINENCE
- 20 OPPONENS POLLICIS
- 21. ABDUCTOR POLLICIS
- 22. FLEXOR POLLICIS BREVIS
- 23. HYPOTHENAR EMINENCE
- 24 ABDUCTOR DIGITI MINIMI QUINTI
- 25. FINGER PADS OF THUMB
- 26 INTERPHALANGEAL WEBBING





Blood vessels through the body tend to lie in depressions, generally in hollows between elevated forms. They are thus in a position of safety, out of the way of impact or injury. This is particularly true of the hand, where no veins protrude on the palmar side and where they tend to lie between forms on the dorsal side. The drawing at left shows the venous network coursing around the elevated knuckles, circling and crossing the finger shanks, and rising along the side planes of the fingers. Higher up, the venous system branches off into two main trunks (A1, A2) and two main tributaries (B1, B2) ascending vertically from a transverse channel, the dorsal venous arch (C) above the palm knuckles.

The drawing at right, with arm extended downward, shows the location of veins along the main muscles of the inner arm. Note their deep entrenchment, especially at the elbow.

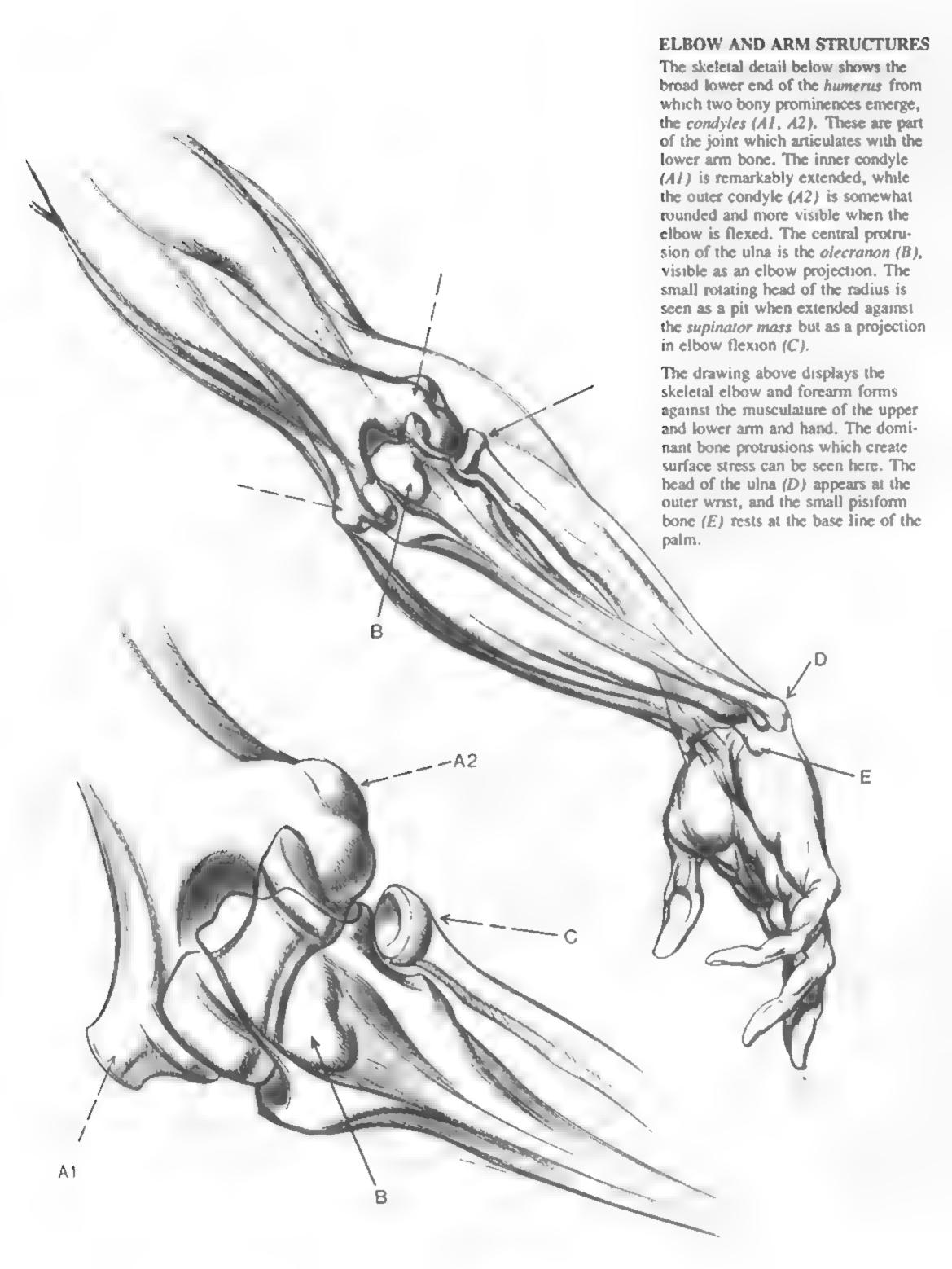


PALMAR VENOUS SYSTEM

Conversely, the palmar venous system is markedly simpler than that of the dorsal side, especially in the fingers. This system allows for the flexing, closing, and clenching actions of the inner hand, with the extremes of pressure encountered through a working day. L. CEPHALIC VEIN 2. MEDIAN VEIN 3. TRIBUTARIES TO BASILIC VEIN 4. TRANSVERSE PALMAR ARCH 5. LONGITUDINAL DIGITAL VEINS

4. ANATOMICAL LANDMARKS AND SURFACE STRESS

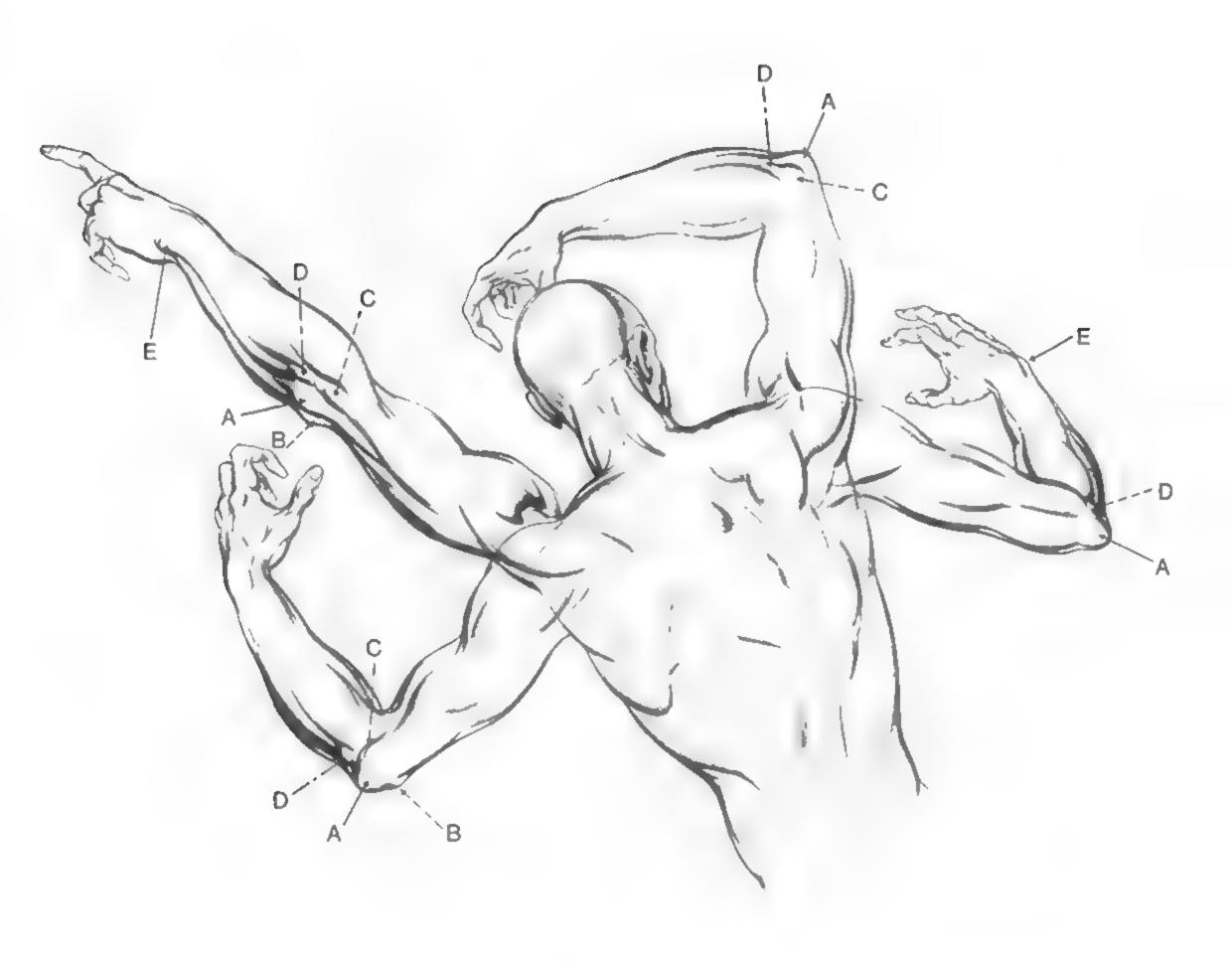
The artist can truly understand surface forms only by knowing their underlying structures and their form and behavior under tension, stress, and activity. We are still dealing with anatomy in this chapter, but from the viewpoint of dominant surface stress.



SIDE PLANE OF WRIST AND LITTLE FINGER

This drawing of the little finger side of the hand shows the wrist and the head of the ulna in two views. The top view illustrates alignment of the ulnar head with the palm knuckle of the little finger from both top and side planes. The pisiform bone can be seen under the head of the ulna. The lower drawing shows these forms with the hand turned palm side up. Note that when placement of the little finger knuckle and palm is known, all other knuckles on the dorsal side of the hand can also be determined correctly.





SKELETAL ELBOW AND WRIST PROJECTIONS

This multiple action drawing illustrates the necessity of knowing underlying structure and surface stress. Note the five skeletal projections of elbow and wrist which become apparent under the stress of the positions shown. These are elbow (olecranon) projection (A), inner condyle projection (B), outer condyle projection (C), radius head (D), and ulnar head, side plane projection (E). See if you can locate other anatomical landmarks in the hand and elsewhere.

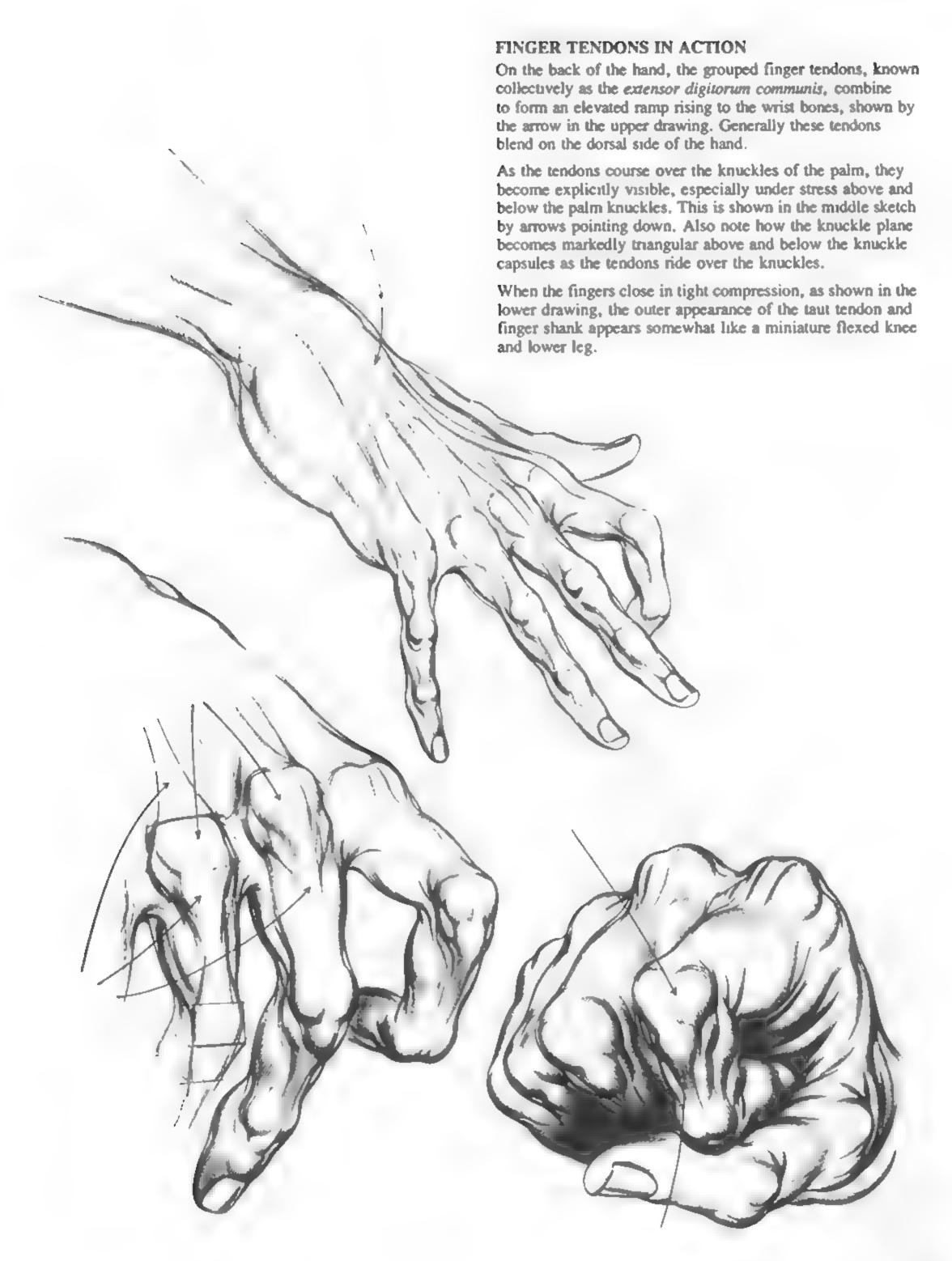


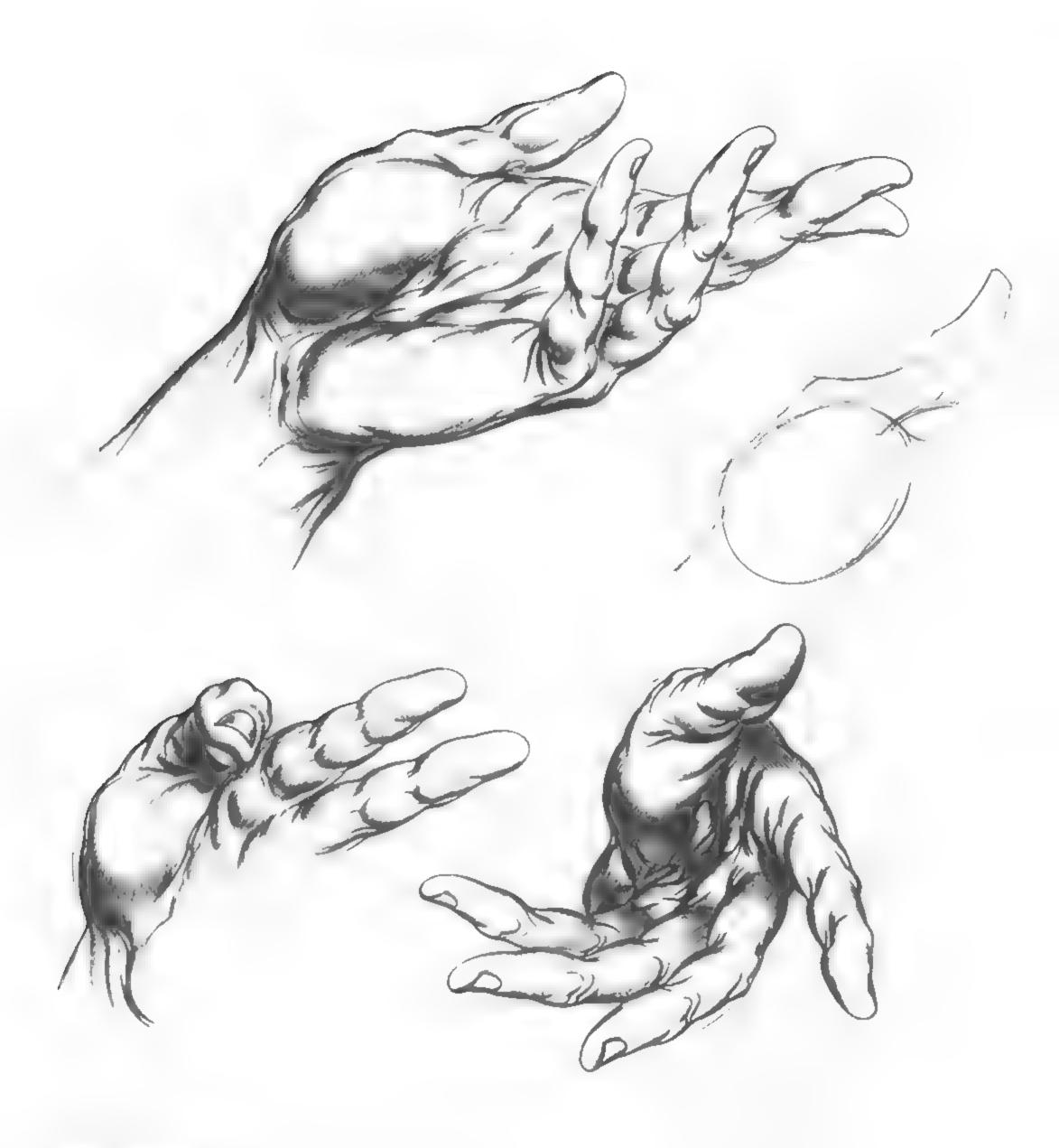


THE "SNUFFBOX"

Note the triangular depression high in the top of the palm (A) shown in this thumb-side dorsal view of the hand. This hollow develops when the thumb is extended outward and upward, an action produced by two thumb muscles, the extensor pollicis longus and the extensor pollicis brevis, and aided by the abductor pollicis longus. The tendons of these muscles noted here, the extensor longus (B), extensor brevis (C) and abductor longus (D) form the taut side walls of this depression, while the high radius (E) closes the cavity at the top. This depression is known as tabatiere, meaning "snuffbox," possibly derived from the habit of French and English gentlemen placing snuff in this hollow and then







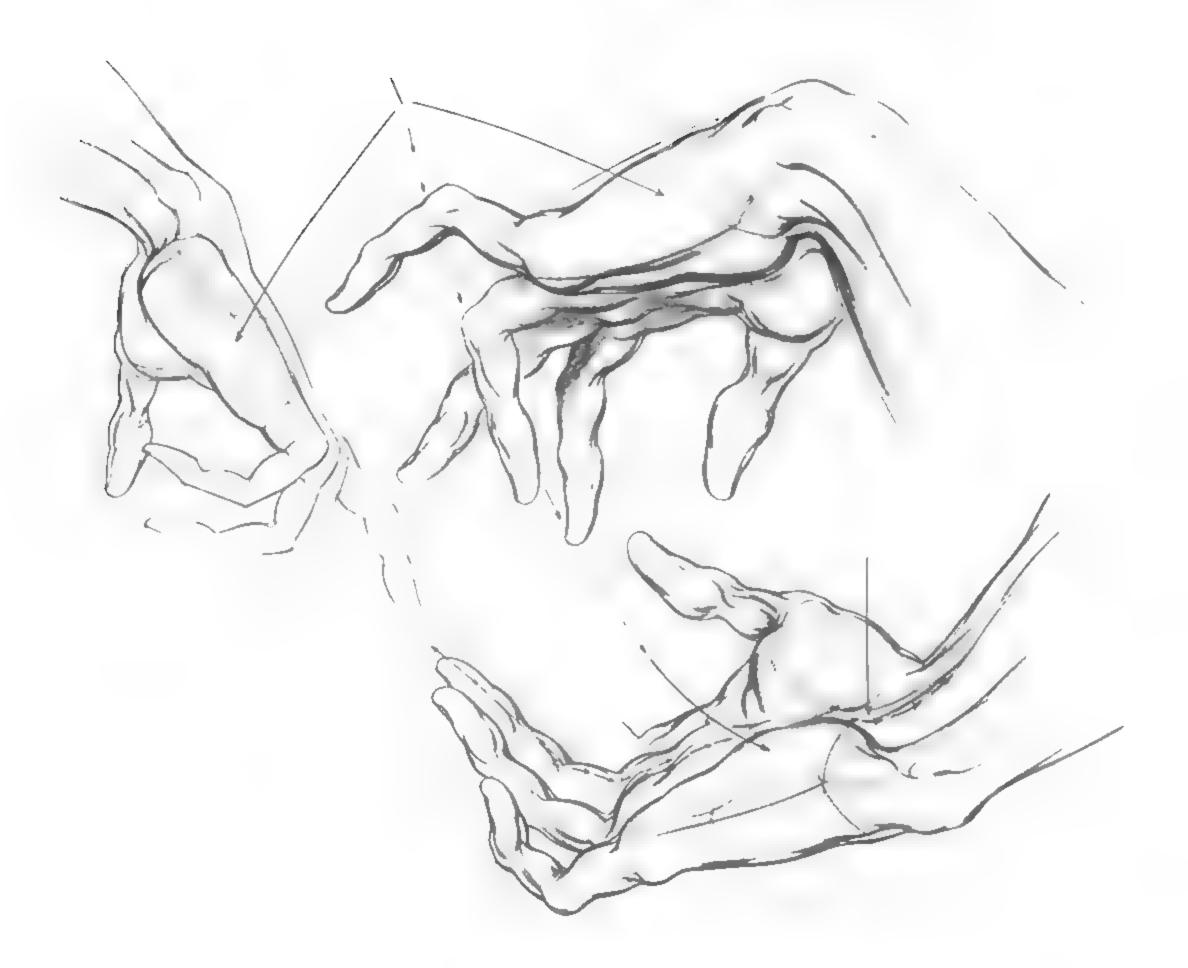
THENAR EMINENCE

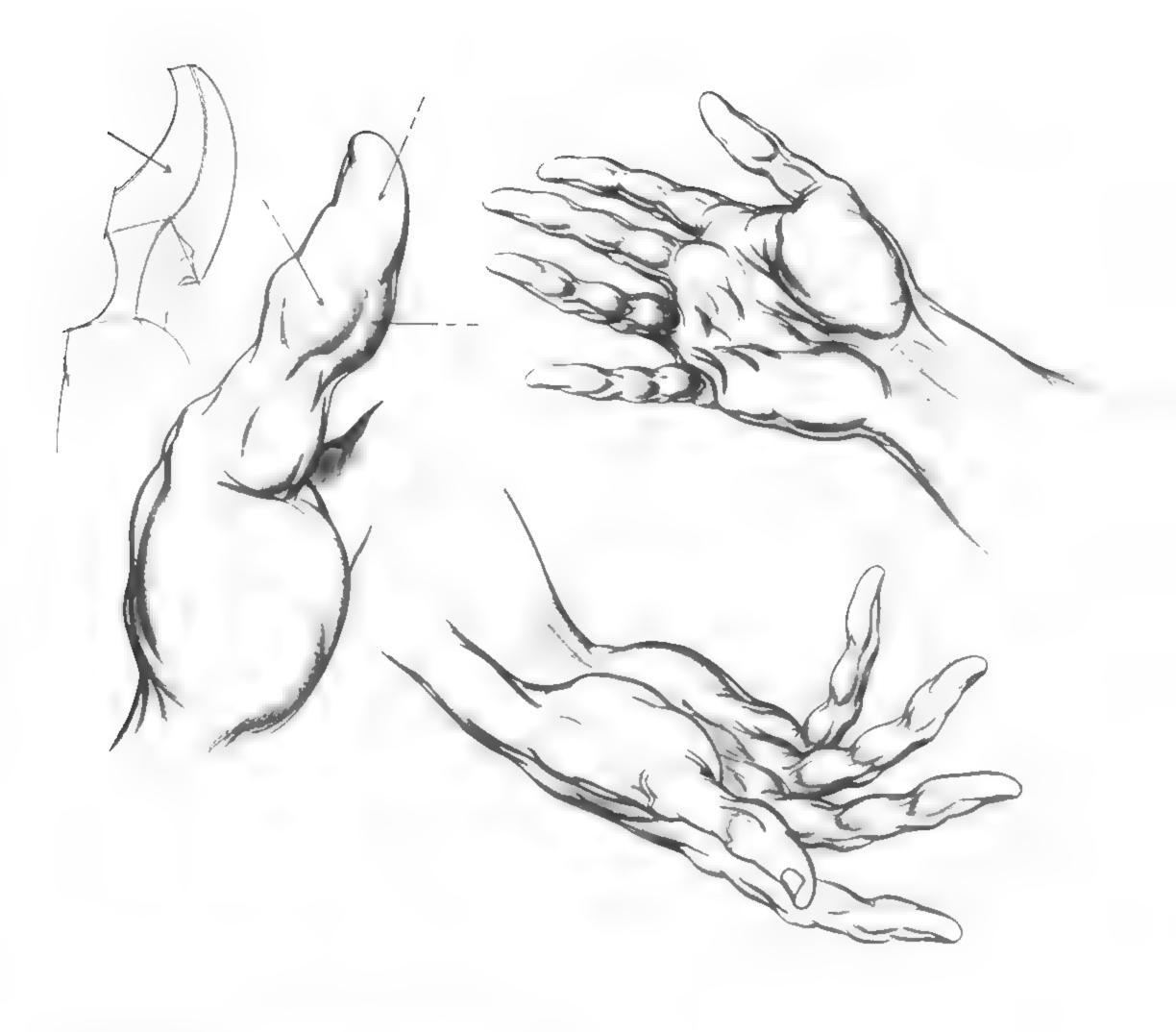
The ball of the thumb (thenar eminence) is the largest form on the underside of the palm. Shaped like an egg (as shown in the upper palmar view and the schematic to its right), it is notably variable as it flexes and closes toward the palm. It will flatten when lying tightly flexed against the index finger, but will elevate and expand when the thumb rises and begins to rotate inward toward the palm, as shown in the drawing at lower right.

HYPOTHENAR PLATEAU

Opposite the thenar eminence is the flatter, more elongated hypothenar plateau (noted by arrows) on the little finger side of the palm. This is seen from the side plane in the upper drawings. Wedge shaped, it rises narrowly from the little finger metacarpal pad and swells upward to the wrist.

The drawing below, little finger side up, shows the higher thenar eminence on the other side of the deep trench at midpalm. This mid-palm trench (marked by broken arrows) is a unique landmark in the hand, for it centrally divides the palm, running from the tip of the longest finger to the apex of the palm at the wrist. Even beyond, it ascends the forearm on the midline tendon of palmaris longus.





FINGERTIP AND FINGER SHANK PADS

Consistent with the wedge shape of all fingertip forms, the thumb pads, marked by arrows in the large drawing at left, form an isosceles triangle. This is true for all other fingertips as well.

The pads on the finger shanks, seen in the drawings of the open palm, are somewhat lozenge shaped, yet are lightly creased at the center because of the deep flexor tendons running the length of the fingers. Note the variations of fingertip and finger shank pads seen from these two different views.



STRESSES AND ENERGY FLOWS

When the hand is in motion or performing an activity, the skin is stressed in the direction of the action, responding to the stress in the same way that clothing responds to the action of the body. Note the arrows expressing the spiraling swings of the fingers in the drawing at upper left. Follow the backward stress as the thumb surges forward and note the creases at the wrist.

The arrows in the drawing at lower left express the skin tensions on the curved knuckle capsules and illustrate the conception of the drawing. They express energy flows and the dynamics that shape the drawing.

The drawing at upper right shows the direction of stress on finger pads and the palm during bends and thrusts. Also note the webs between the fingers which connect the finger roots without slowing or inhibiting movement.

5. ACTIONS, FUNCTIONS, LIMITS OF MOVEMENT

The hand is the most complex and variable form in the human body. No other form can respond with such extraordinary range and functional capability and with such ease and grace. For example, the separate fingers can perform an immense variety of actions, and the thumb, obliquely opposing the four long fingers and palm wedge, aids in actions such as grasping, prying, and supporting. However, not all the forms of the hand are as free to move as the fingers. Some forms are bound tightly by ligaments and have a very limited range of movement. In this chapter we will look at the hand in terms of some of the many maneuvers of which it is capable.



PALM ROTATION

One of the hand's unique actions is palm rotation. It rotates in a 180-degree arc, a full half circle. The drawing at left, with thumb in, shows pronation, and the one at right, with thumb out, shows supination. This is a simple action with the arm outstretched, but not so simple when the arm changes position. Put your hand to your head, shoulder, back, leg, or ankle, and rotate it. Note the difficulty in different positions.

DOWNWARD PALM BEND

When the palm bends downward with the fingers extended, the ultimate declination from the line of the forearm is an angle of 90 degrees—a right angle. The point at which the arm stops and the hand begins is shown by the horizontal arrow, the wristline juncture of the arm, not the carpal line of the hand.

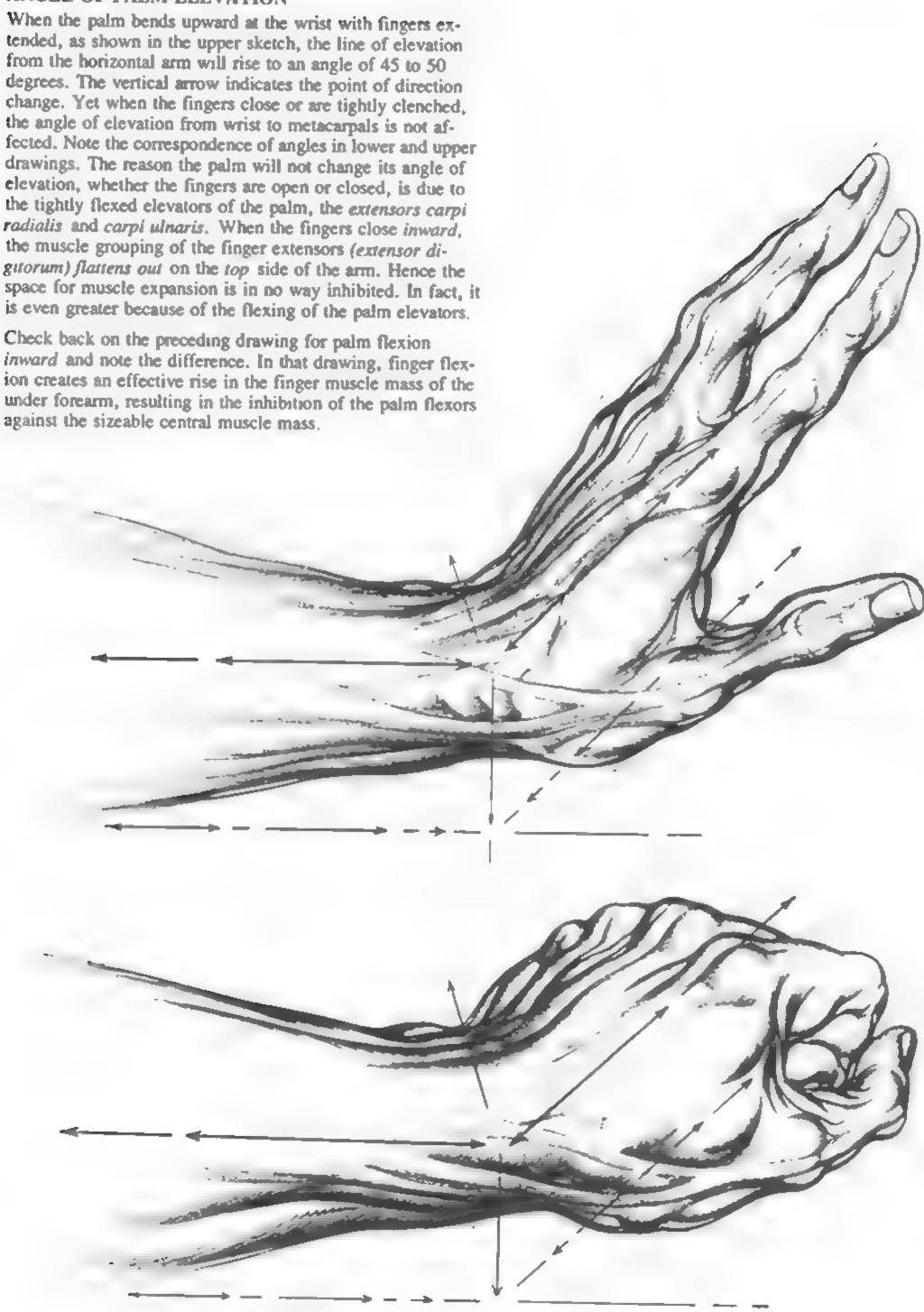




UPWARD PALM BEND

When the fingers flex and bend inward to the palm, the angle of palm-to-forearm is only 45 degrees. The juncture point is shown by the vertical arrow.

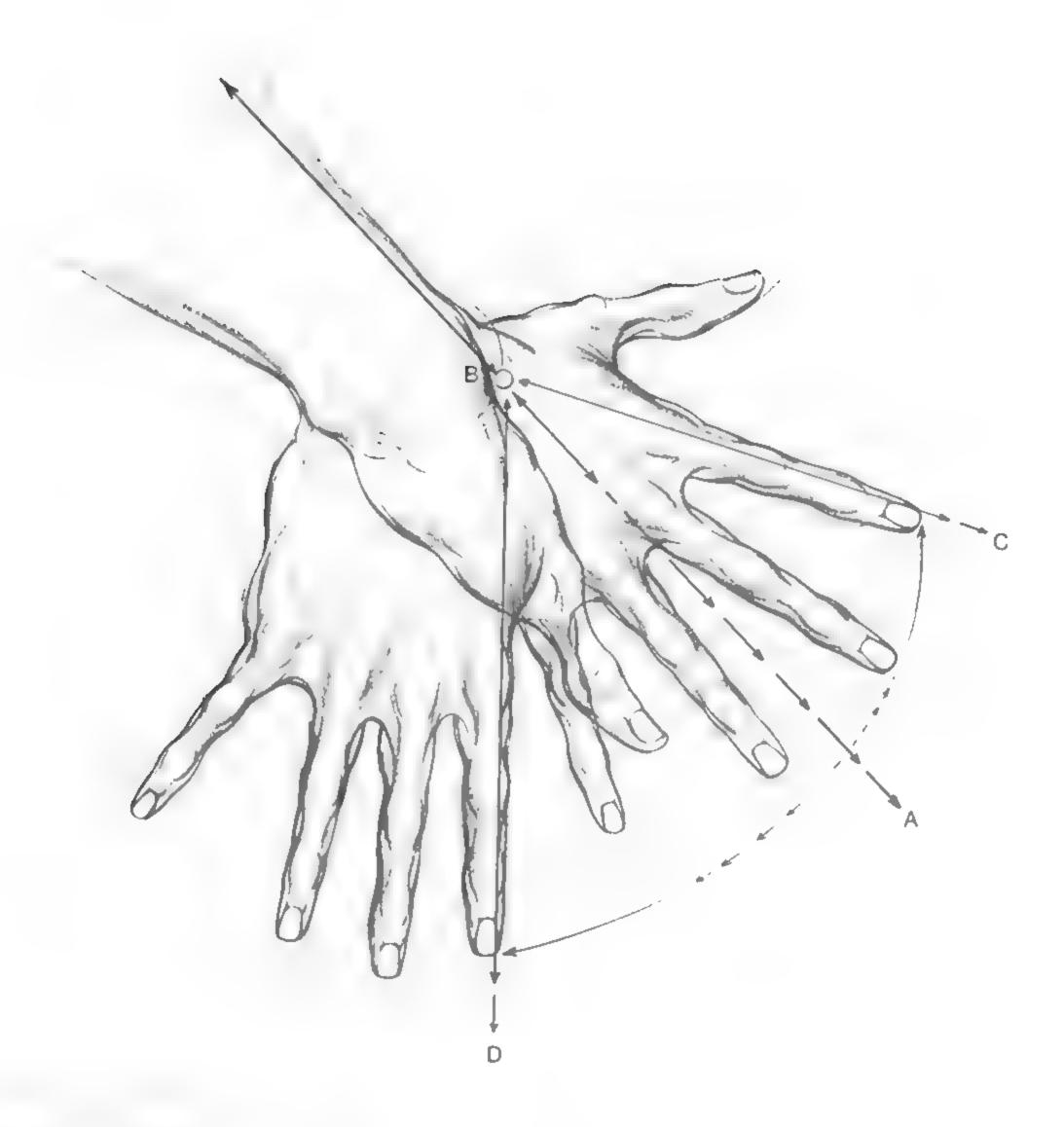
ANGLE OF PALM ELEVATION





FIST CLOSURE

In the closed fist, it is important to note the correct orientation of the thumb in opposition to the fingers. In right closure the thumb tip will abut the shank of the middle phalanx of the long finger just below the closed knuckle. The line of thumb direction (shown by broken arrows) points diagonally from the place of middle finger contact across the center of the fourth finger knuckle toward the intersection of the little finger palm knuckle.

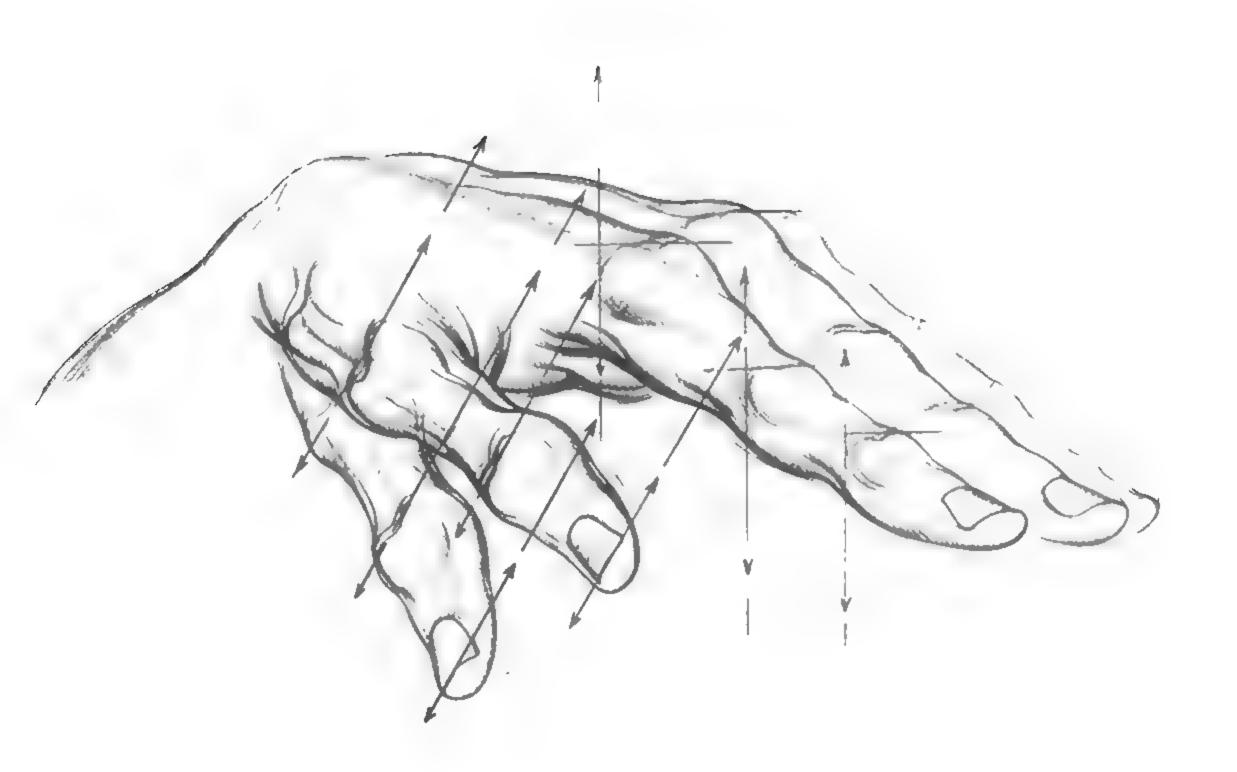


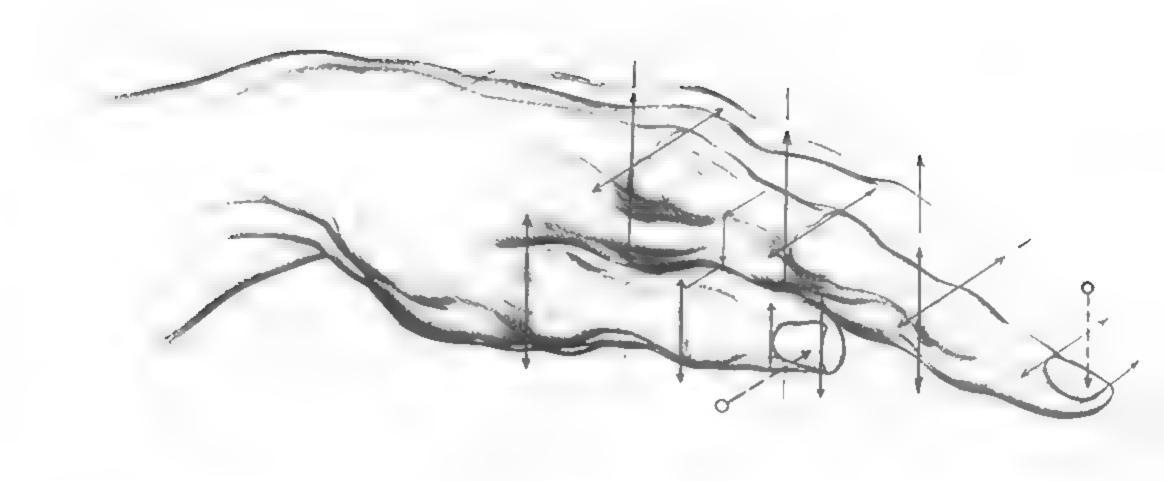
INSIDE AND OUTSIDE ANGLES

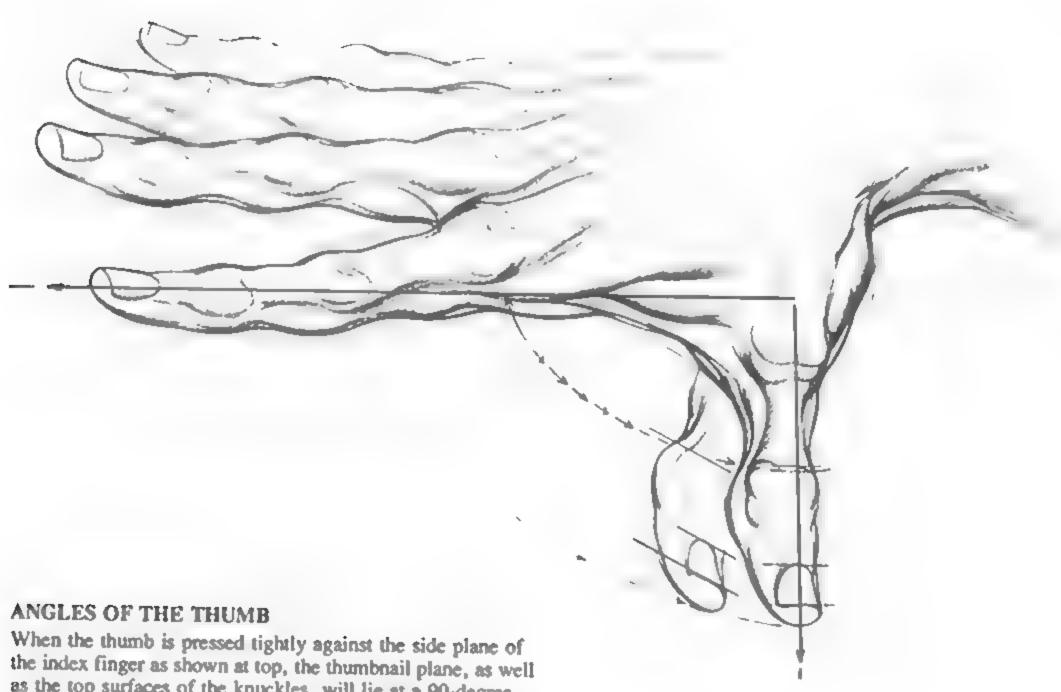
The drawing here illustrates the swing of the hand from extreme inside to extreme outside positions. The hand is placed on a flat surface, palm side down, with the pivot position at zero. The broken line (A), continuing from the inner arm line (B), represents the line of the index finger in normal position. When the index finger line swings inward (C) the angle will be approximately 30 degrees from line B. When the index finger swings outward (whole palm of course), the angle will be 45 degrees from A to D. Thus the total swing of the palm from inside to outside will be an arc of 75 degrees from C to D.

SIDE VIEW ANGLES

Seen from the side view, when the thumb lies relaxed and adjacent to the side of the palm and index finger (hold up your hand and observe), the angle of the tipped thumb will be about 30 to 35 degrees from the vertical side plane of the palm and finger (shown by vertical arrows). The tipped thumb is defined here from the angle of the fingernail, the planes of the knuckles, the phalanx, and the metacarpal. Note how this angle of tipping is consistent if the thumb is brought down, but will not hold if the thumb is brought inward or under the palm.







when the thumb is pressed tightly against the side plane of the index finger as shown at top, the thumbnail plane, as well as the top surfaces of the knuckles, will lie at a 90-degree angle to the top of the hand and the index finger knuckles and fingernail. Note the contraposed angles of the fingernails of

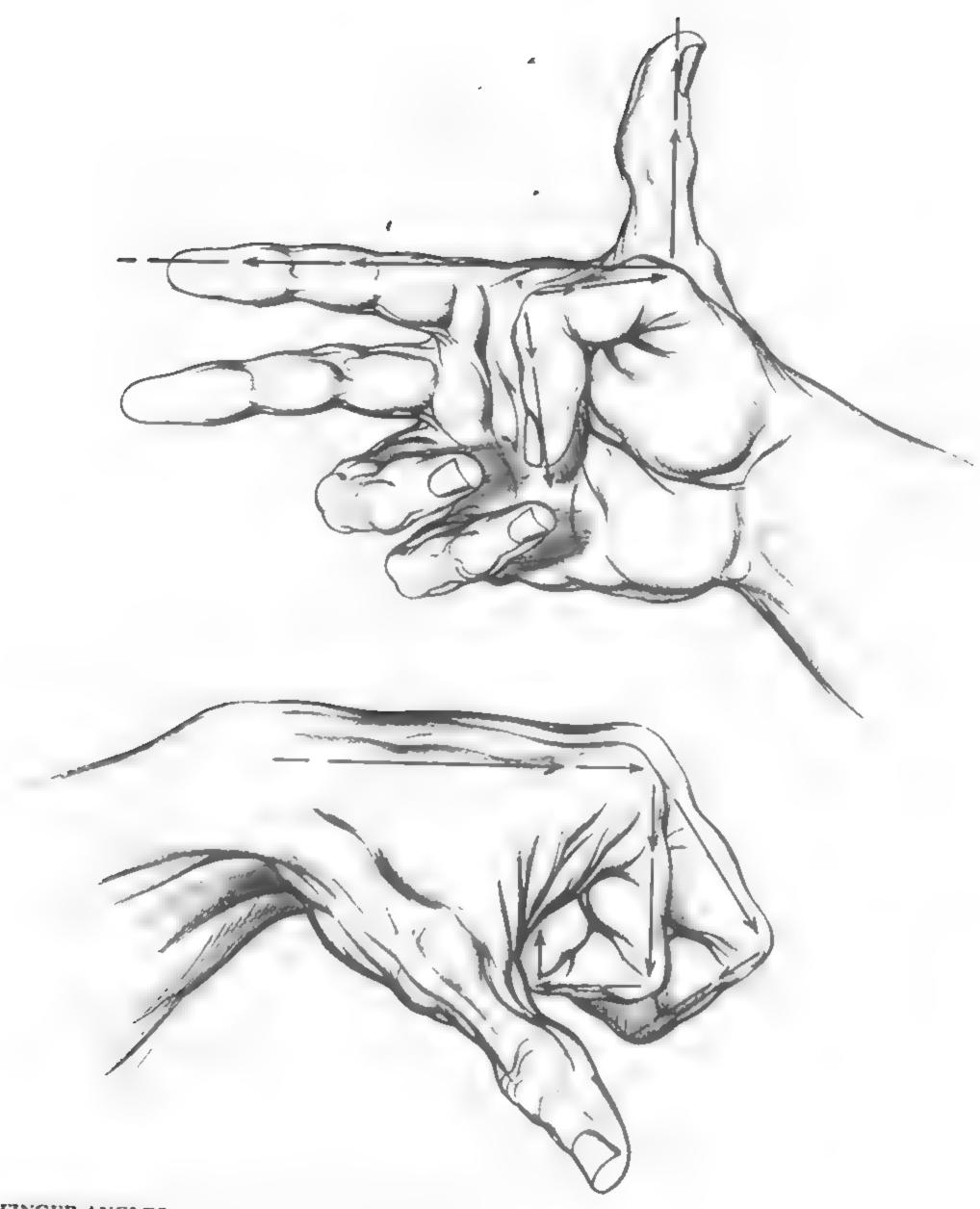
thumb and index finger.

The thumb is shown in complete extension in the lower drawing. Notice that at a full 90-degree angle the thumb fingernail lies fully horizontal with the flat surface planes of the other fingernails. Also, at this point of maximum extension, the thumb and forefinger make a true right angle to each other.

THUMB ROTATION

This drawing shows the hand from a three-quarter palm position. As the thumb swings out, the thumbnail plane rotates upward from a 90-degree vertical position at tight closure (note vertical arrows), to a 60-degree position (middle thumb position), and then to a 45-degree angle.





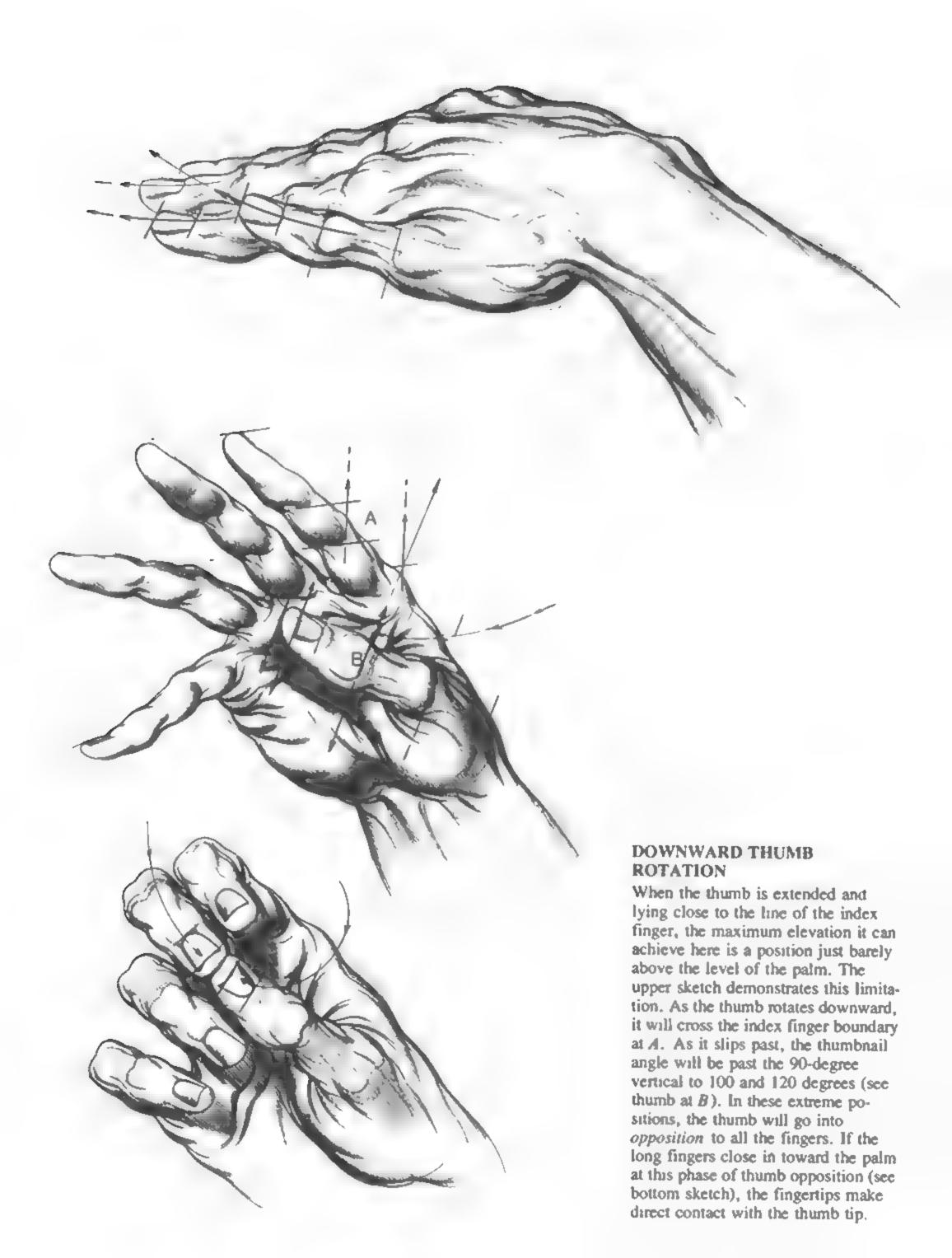
FINGER ANGLES

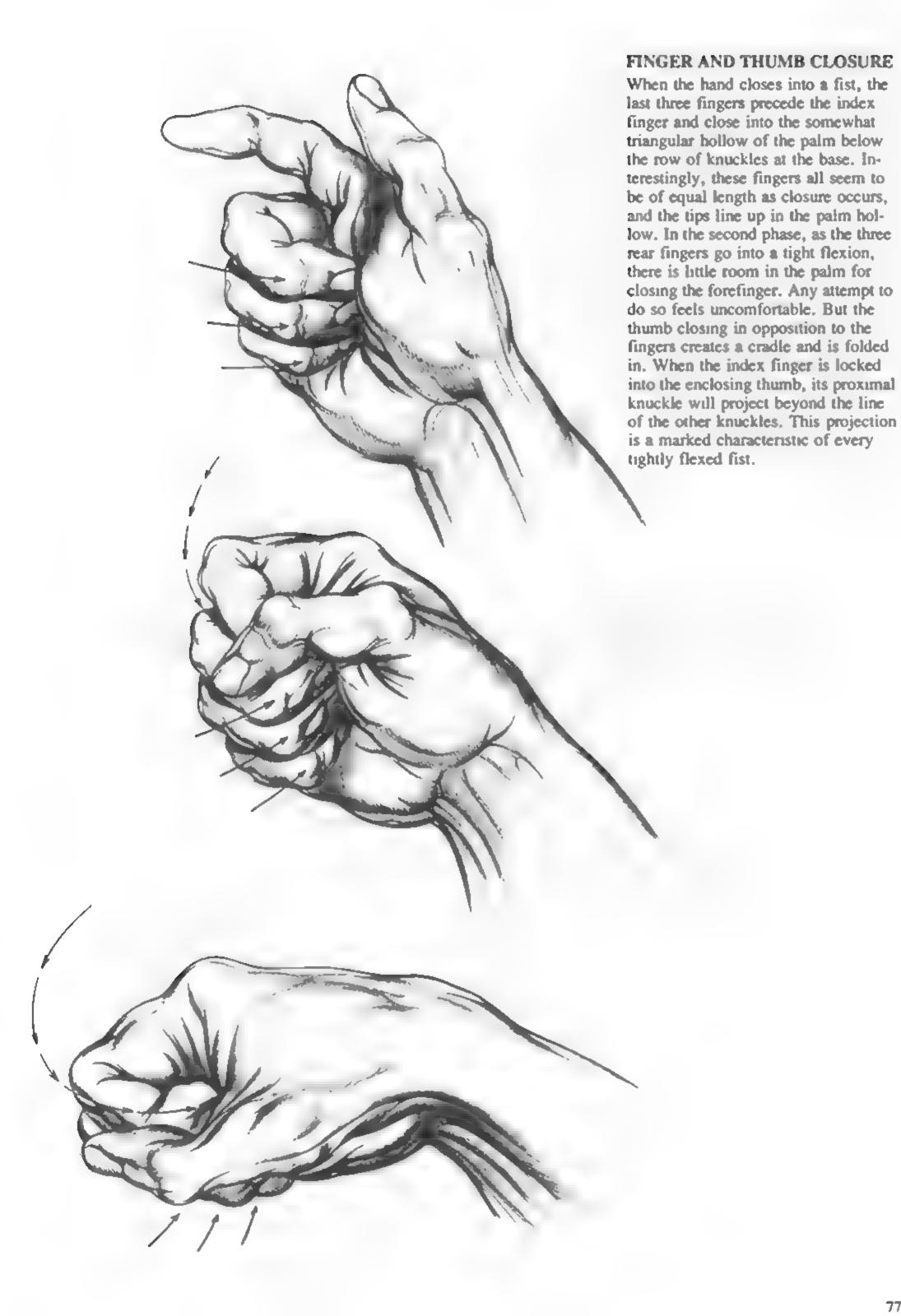
All fingers tend to show a general 90-degree limit of closure, knuckle to knuckle, from the thumb through the little finger. The sketch above shows the thumb pointed out 90 degrees from the palm line and then drawn down and closed at 90 degrees. Both positions form right angles with the index finger. The sketch below shows the index finger in tight flexion, producing a square corner at every knuckle bend. Note the 90-degree bends in the middle finger.

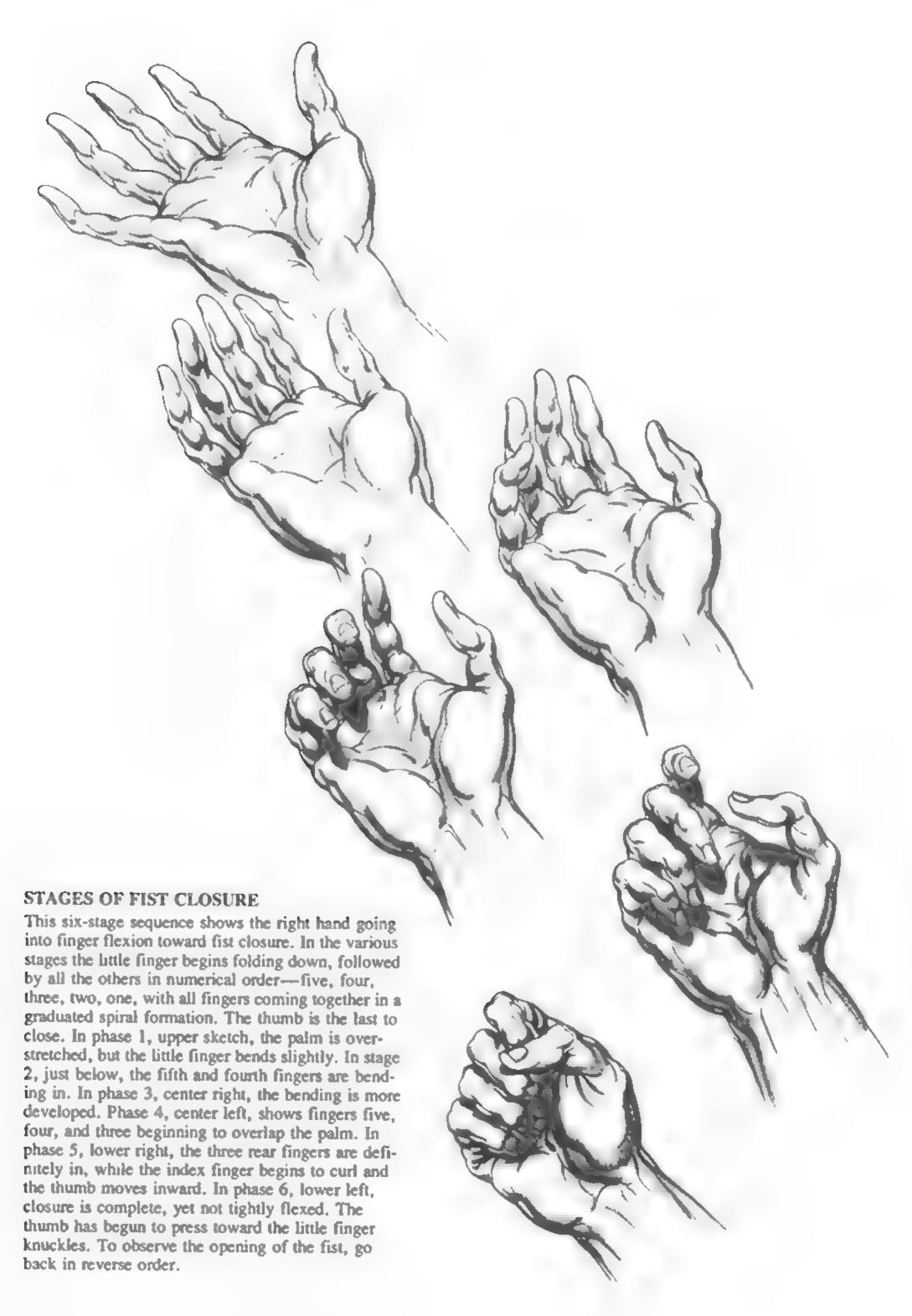
TOP VIEW

The upper sketch, drawn from above, shows the thumb closed at a 90-degree angle dipping below the level of the index finger. It will not go further down without breaking the 90-degree thumb closure. Also note the horizontal alignment of index finger and thumb. In the sketch below, the back fingers in closure also form 90-degree angles at each knuckle.

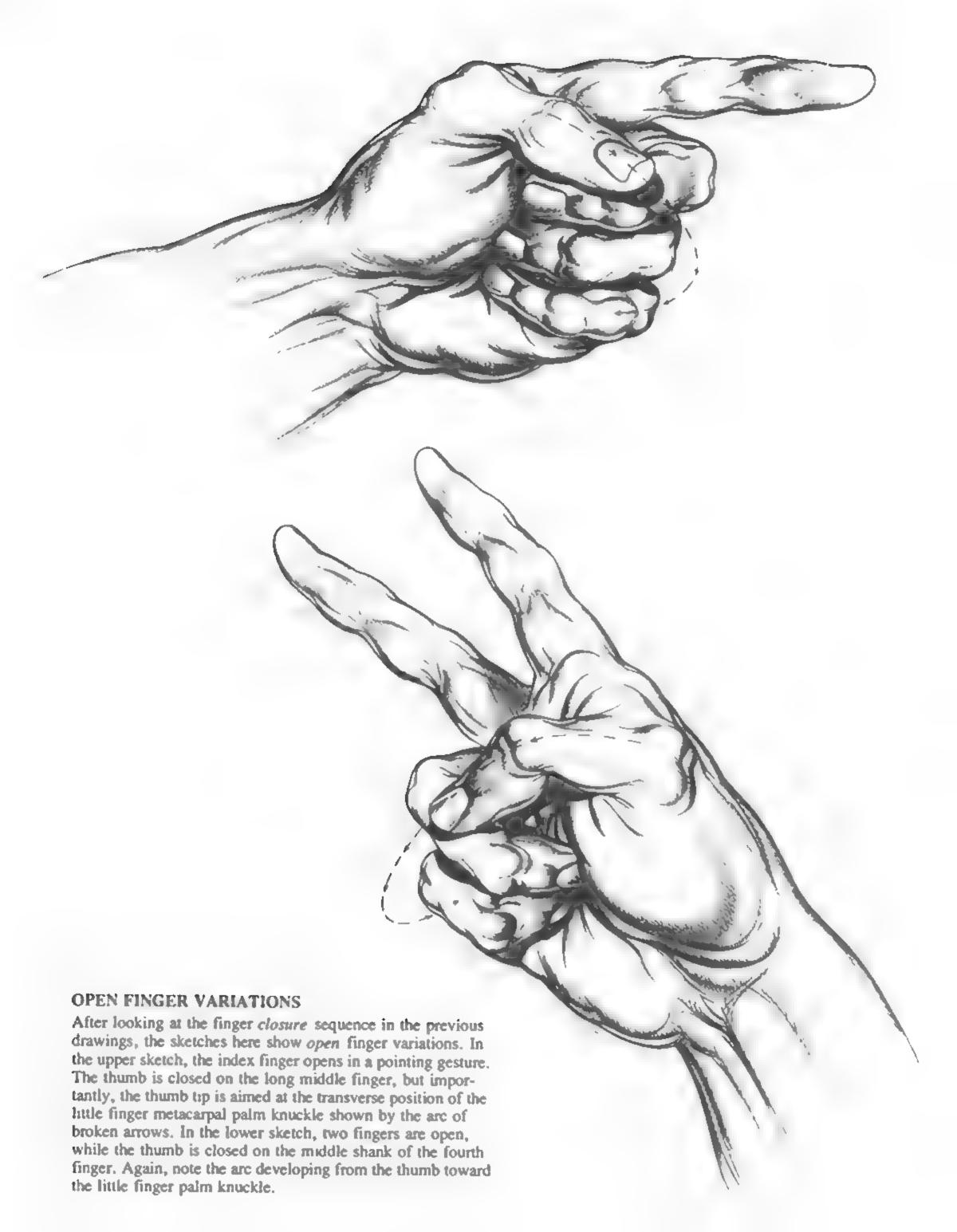








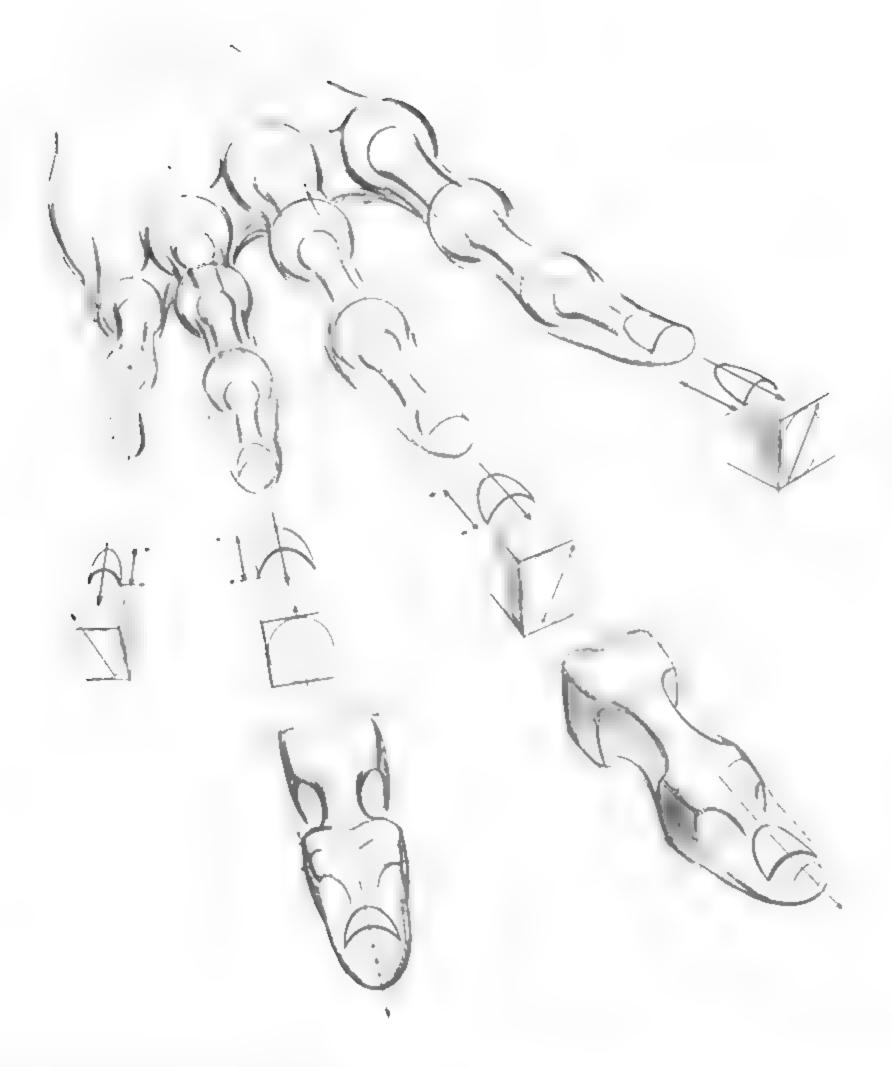






6. FORESHORTENING

It is impossible to draw the human hand accurately and artistically without an understanding of foreshortening, the overlapping of forms seen in spatial recession. Because there is scarcely any hand position which does not involve some form seen in deep space, in order to achieve a threedimensional rather than a flat effect, it is important to see and understand advancing and receding forms. A difficulty often encountered is the problem of retaining the hand's rhythms, its flow, and its sense of unity when drawing it from angles of deep foreshortening. Because forms are seen one in front of, on top of, or behind another, or not clearly seen at all, there is a tendency for them to look bumpy, segmented, and abrupt. Principles such as overlapping, interlacing, spiraling, and tonal contrast to achieve depth are given here as aids to learning to draw the hand as a dynamic, alive volume moving in space.



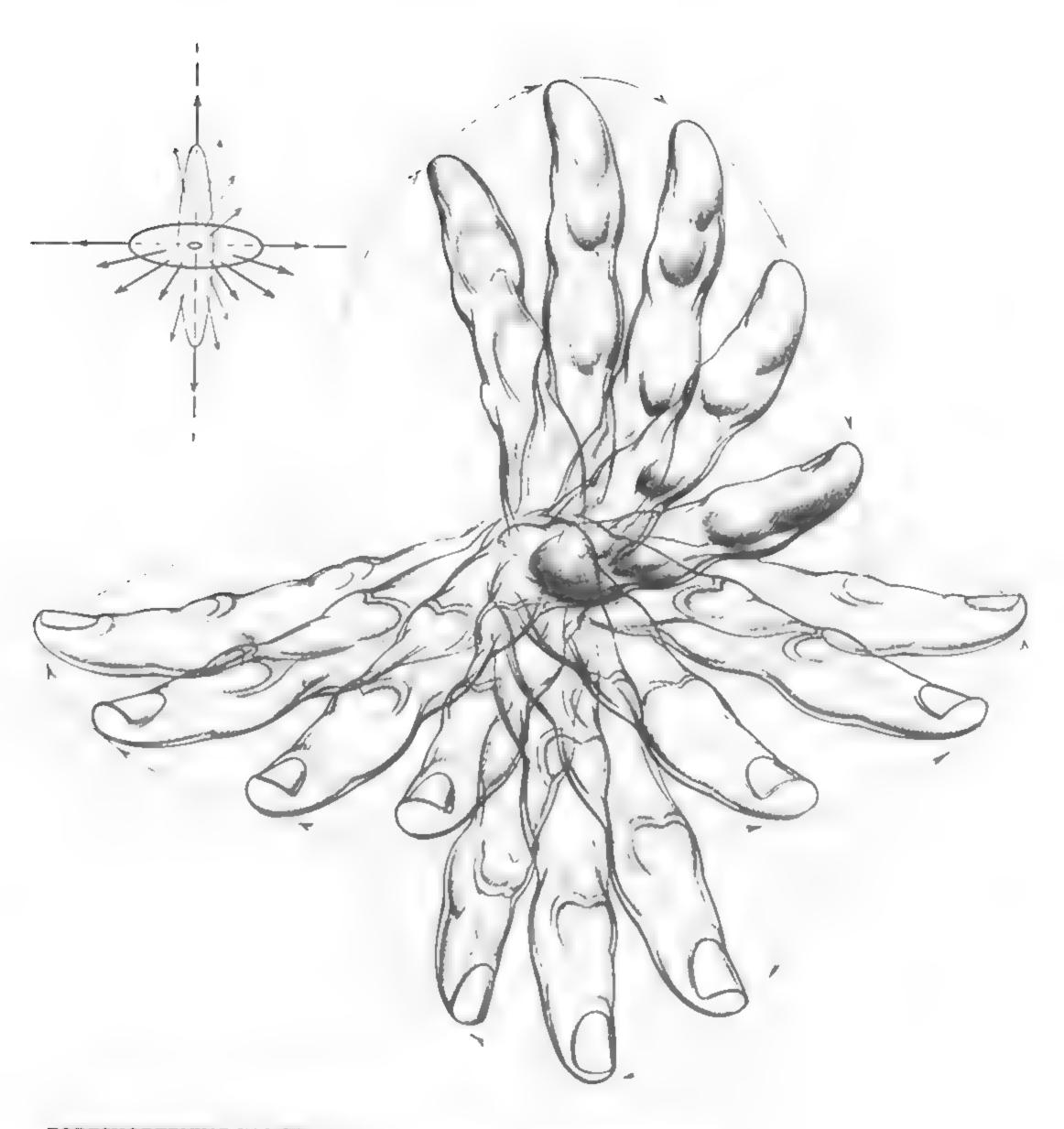
ROD AND BALL FORMS OF THE FINGERS

Using the simple ball (knuckle) and rod (shank) forms we have studied earlier, note that the three rods (shanks) of the index finger appear quite long in this three-quarter view. We see the other fingers more straight on, as we move progressively to the left. The rods or bone shanks are seen as shortest, especially the rear shank, on the fourth finger. This is due to a foreshortening or compression of frontal space. One of the ways to test the accuracy of the drawings of foreshortened fingers is to check the fingernail *lengths* seen in depth against the *curves* in the different views from side to front as shown in the middle diagrams.

Beginning with the side view at right, the nail appears more sidewise than frontal. It seems long from front to back (note arrows), and the curve is quite elliptical. In the schematic block in front of the nail, the circle is seen as an ellipse because of the tangential view, and the top of the ellipse has the same kind of curve as the nail arch. The nail of the long

middle finger is more circular because its tip is seen more to the front. It is also shorter from front to back, and the nail is less elliptical and more curved, as shown by the schematic block. The fourth finger is seen from the deepest view of all, its tip seen at almost full circle with the nail fully arched. Conversely, the nail length is also the shortest of all because of the deepest foreshortening. Note the full circle on the schematic block. The little finger is veering left of center, and the slight side view gives a somewhat elliptical nail arch at front.

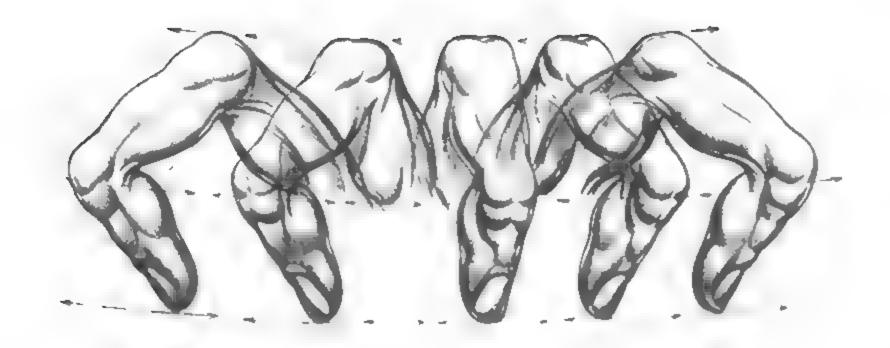
The two sketches at bottom show the knuckle and shank forms in the terminals of the middle and fourth fingers. Compare the front view of the fourth finger with the tangential view of the middle finger. The fourth finger looks short and circular, while the middle finger looks long and elliptical. Also note how the fingertips and nails reflect the views of the fingers.



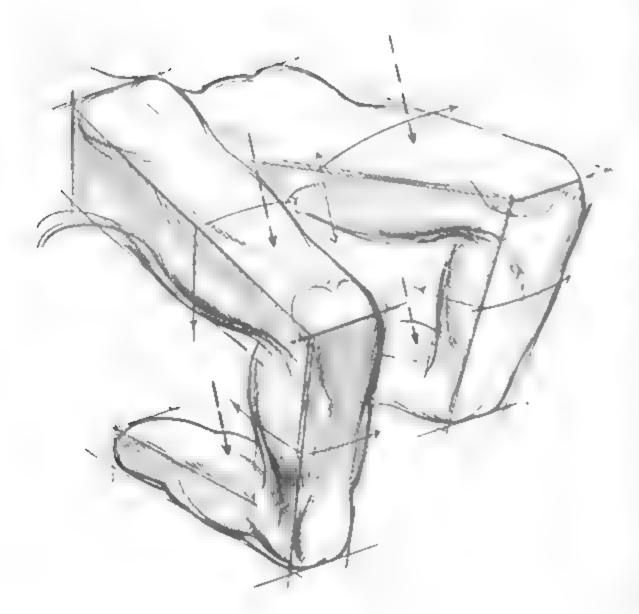
FORESHORTENING IN ROTATION

The drawing here is a wonderful exercise in foreshortening, using just the single long middle finger. The finger is seen in rotation in two directions—on a horizontal plane from side to side and on a vertical plane from top to bottom. The rotation scheme is given in miniature in the diagram at upper left.

On the horizontal axis, the shorter the radius, the deeper the foreshortened view of the finger, producing shorter finger shank lengths but rounder nails and knuckles. The concept here is that cylindrical forms become circular in foreshortening. This is also true for fingers in vertical rotation. As before, any new finger in the downward progression becomes more circular as foreshortening occurs, and with the increase of spatial depth, the overlapping of curved elements also increases. It will be profitable to study slowly each of the phases on both planes shown here.





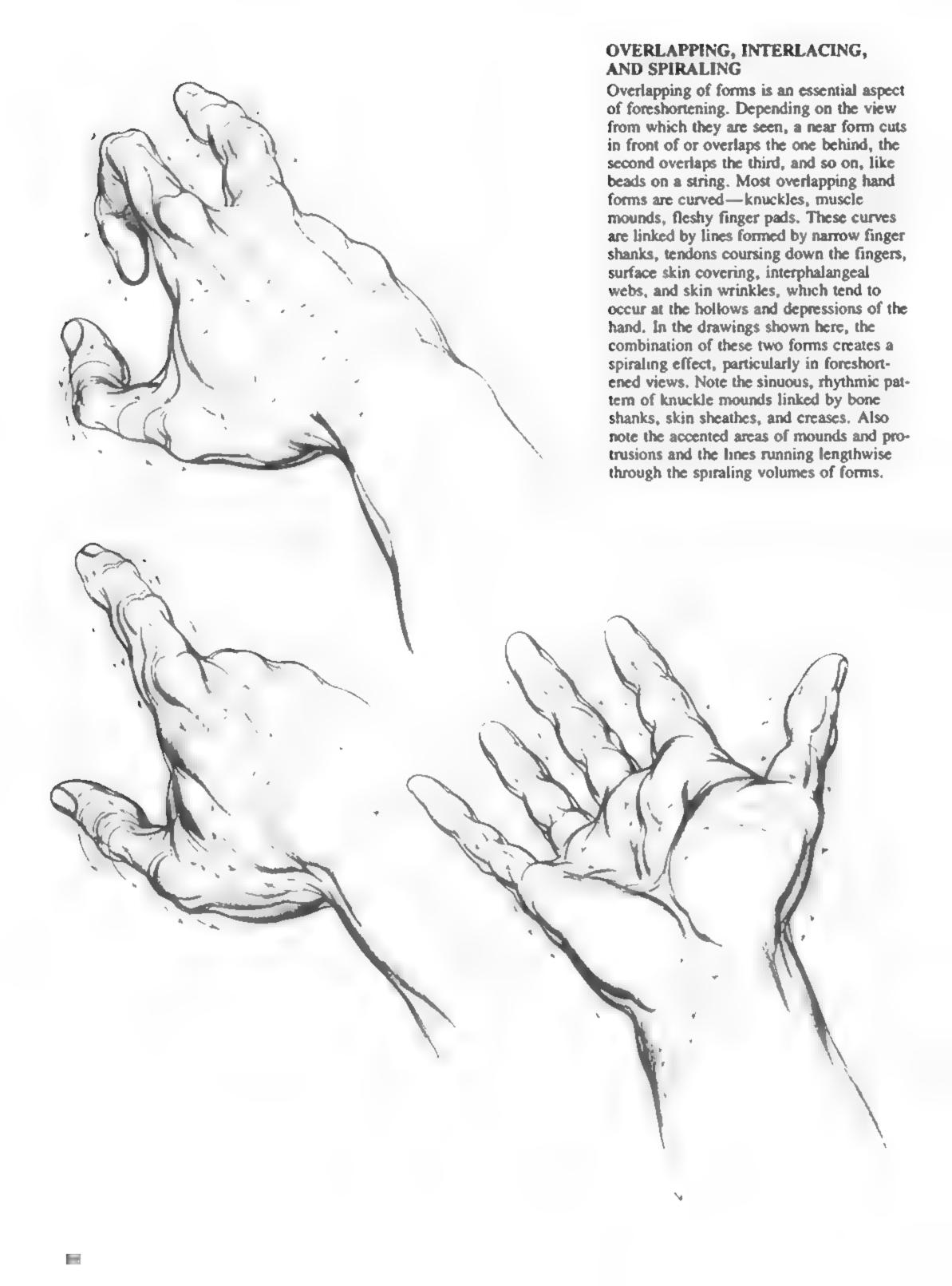


TONAL CHANGES TO ACHIEVE DEPTH

The use of tonal or value changes is an indispensable factor in the development of spatial recession. The drawing at lower left, showing top, side, and underplane surfaces of the two fingers, reveals that advancing surfaces seen horizontally are defined with light tones; receding surfaces which fall away to side planes are given intermediate tones; and regressing forms, such as underplanes, which lie farthest from the light, are expressed in deepest values. The tonal or value system shown in the sketch is simplified in order to permit the use of accented dark contours on undersurface areas.

The developed drawing in the center shows a sequence of a single bent finger moving in an arc of foreshortened changes. The advancing plane here is the middle phalanx of each finger. Thus the top surface is generally lightest. The intermediate surfaces are found mainly on side planes and small protrusions and are defined with grayish tones. The surfaces lying deepest are toned the darkest.

In the upper sequence, the single finger is turned around, with the fleshy palmar surface exposed to the light source. This finger is seen in various positions of the rotational swing. Thus the terminal phalanx may show lighter or darker values, depending on the advancing, receding, or regressing spatial direction.

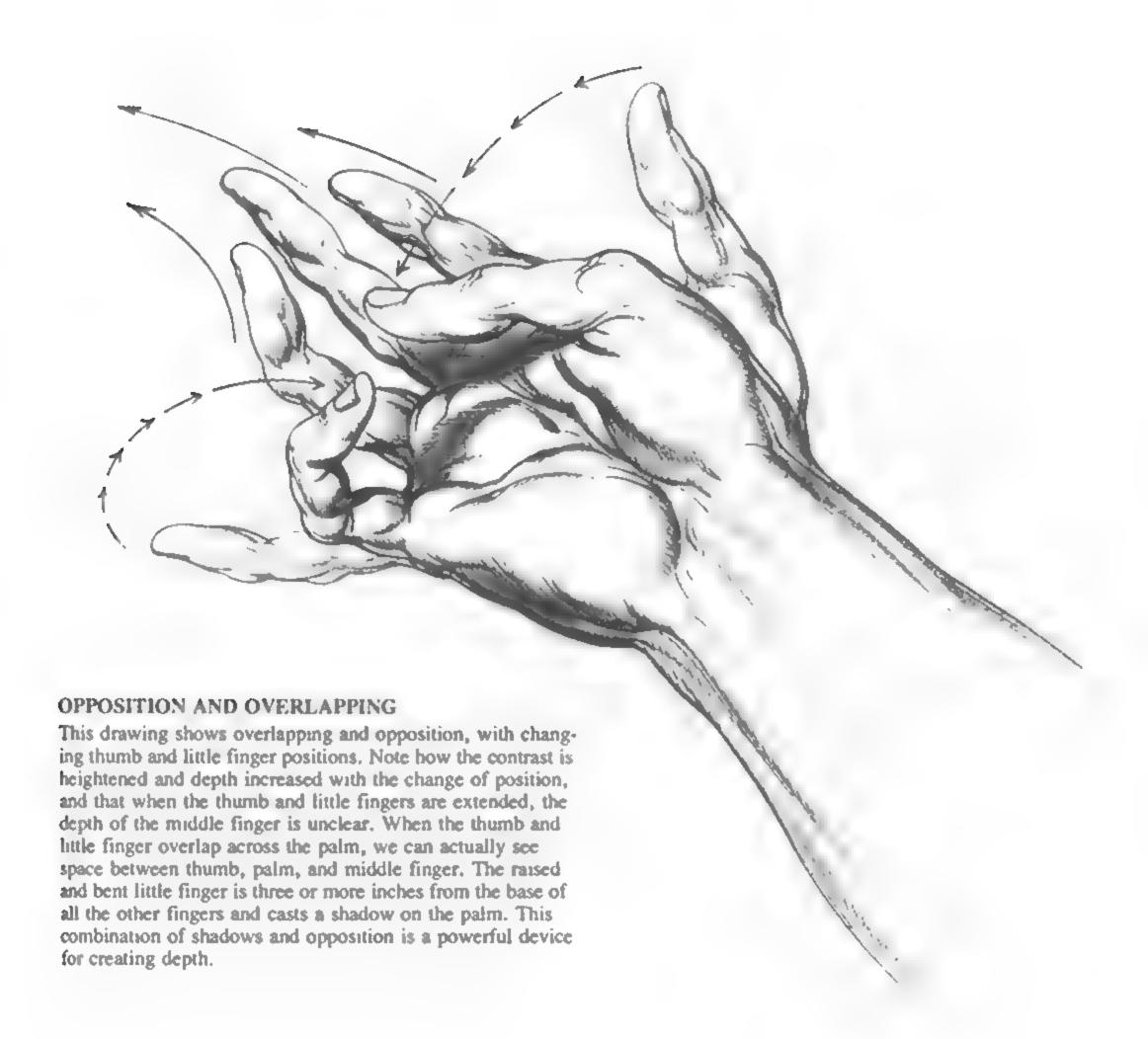




schematics alongside the completed hand. In both upper and middle schematics, the interlace arrows move along tendons and skin stresses. Note how the forms on the hand at right. blend into an uninterrupted continuity. The lower schematic shows sharply defined edges and planes along the interlacing and spiraling arrows. Variation in values is used on the finished hand to achieve depth. Note the darker tones on the palm seen in deeper space as well as the east shadows, which indicate overlapping forms, not connecting ones.

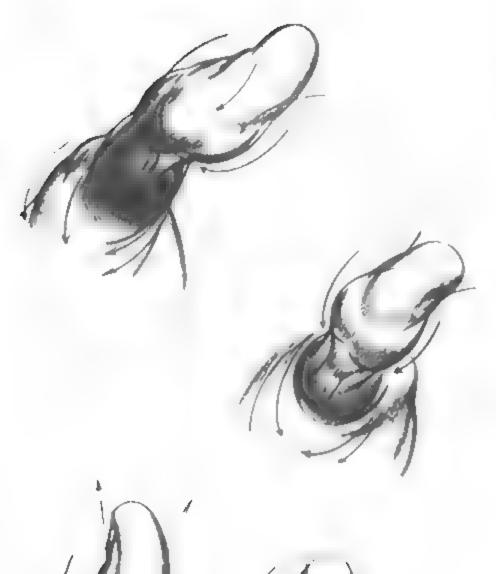
VISUAL TENSION

Depth increases visual tension and impact when fingers contrapose each other, especially in overlapping. In this drawing, index finger and thumb are thrust left and out (note direction of arrows), while the rear fingers, less tense and darker, bend inward for contrast. The arm is also part of this leftward, energized thrust. Note how solid the near forms appear and how recessive the ones farther back seem.









EXPANSION AND COMPRESSION

Expansion and compression of elements increase the illusion of spatial recession. This is especially important in views that need clarification, as when thick, fleshy forms join in soft mounds on the underside of the fingers. In the toned thumb forms at the top, the inward and outward paired arrows show how the drawing was conceived on the principle of expansion and compression. The alternating rhythms create opposition and pictorial dramatics. The compressed passages are fused into forms such as narrow tendons or creases. If these are not apparent, then arbitrary compressions can be expressed as skin tensions. If these make sense visually, and if the foreshortening works without confusion of advancement and recession, the devices of expansion and compression can be relied upon in virtually every foreshortening solution. For example, note in the two lower left drawings how the alternating paired arrows define both bony forms and fleshy forms.





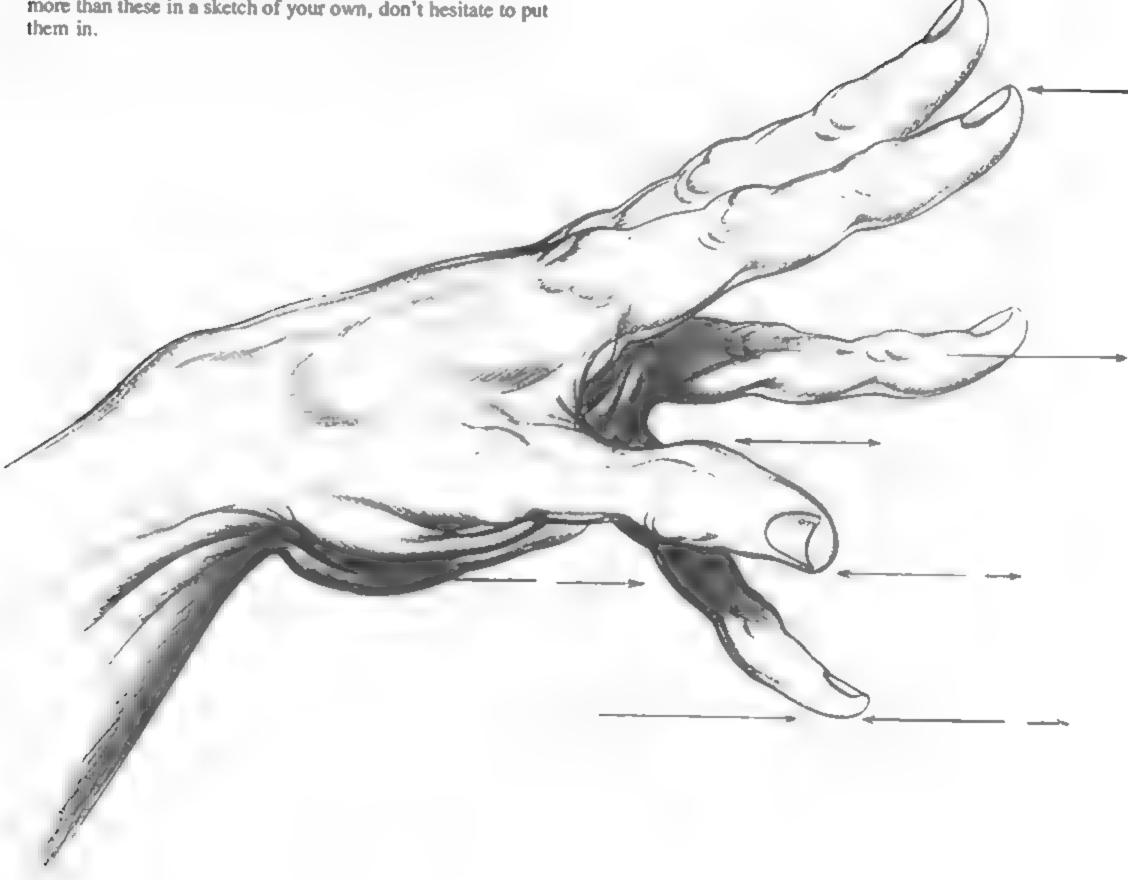
7. INVENTING HANDS IN ACTION

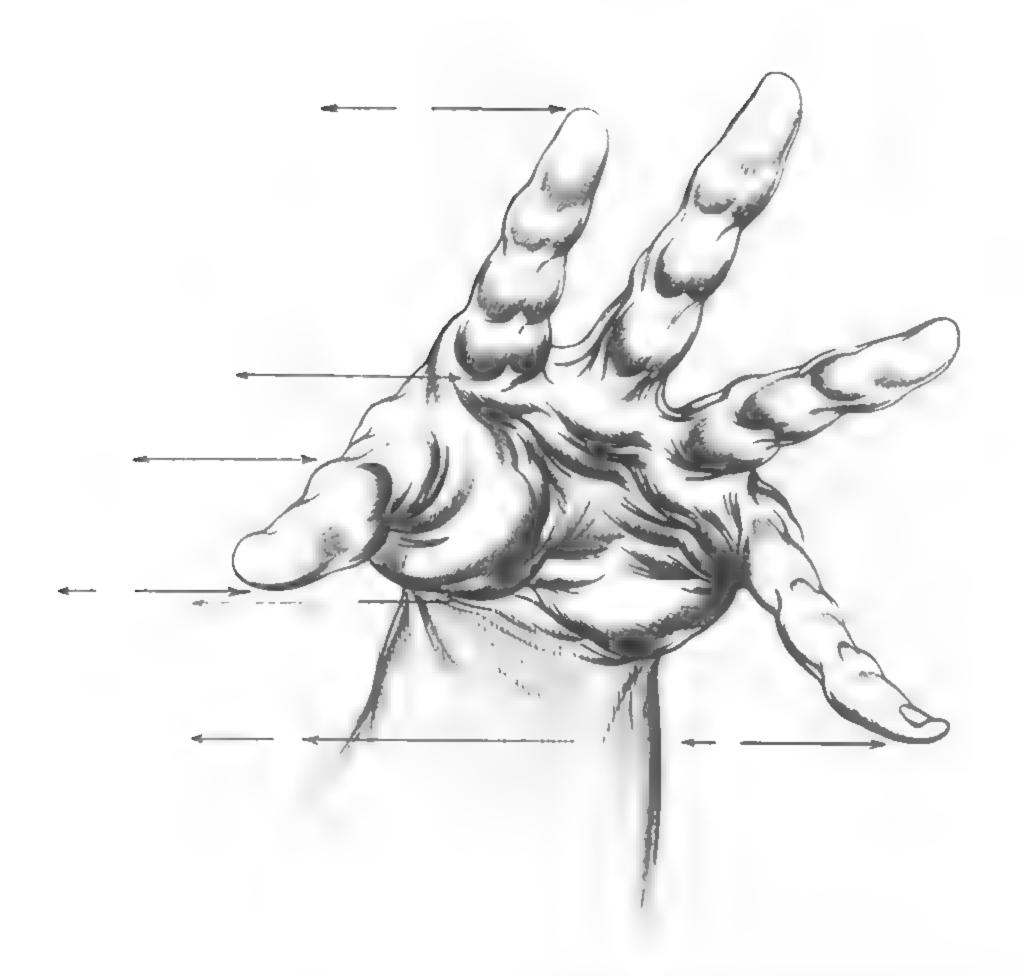
The best hand actions are not necessarily copied exactly from life. Pictorial logic, design necessity, and the overall concept of the work impose their own demands. Anyone who has seen the interpretive and expressive responses of Leonardo, Michelangelo, Grünewald, or Rodin, will understand the need of the artist to create form in response to his intuitive impulses. A starting point for drawing an original and personal hand in action is to sketch, perhaps even copy, a prosaic view of one of the hand's numerous gestures. It does not have to show a remarkable attitude or even a near relationship to the expected result. It can be only a starting point from which you can develop your own personal vision.



PARALLEL PROJECTION

The parallel projection method is a useful device for visualizing possible new hand views. Start with a simple sketch of some easily worked out action such as the side view with extended fingers shown here. Then set out a few horizontal track lines extending from major forms. In this case, thumb and palm muscle thickness and index and little finger lengths are being tracked. These choices are purely arbitrary and only serve to identify change of direction in form. If you need more than these in a sketch of your own, don't hesitate to put them in.





FRONTAL PARALLEL PROJECTION

With tracks laid out, sketch in a tentative deep frontal view of a hand, holding the forms to the limits of the extended lines. If they confuse the eye, sketch them in erasable colored pencils or label each line with the form's name. When you have put in your first forms, you will see a new frontal view of the hand emerge. If doubts arise, project new parallels of smaller forms. Or if certain forms inhibit you or need to be changed, then change them. The drawing is your own and it's up to you to decide what to do with it.



REVERSING POSITIONS

You can now do a surprising thing—you can develop the drawing of frontal foreshortening just discussed into its reversed position. First trace or copy closely the outline of the front view as shown at upper left. Note that the forearm now inserts itself into the dorsal side of the hand. This deliberately causes the eye to accept a shift in the spatial field from front to rear. Now decisively insert the contours of the palm knuckle bulges. In the drawing at right note the accented knuckle forms, the well-defined wrist curve, the ulnar head

joining the outside arm, and the line of the radial bone on the inside arm moving toward the index finger. The third step is to insert finger knuckles. These are found on the outline of the little finger and the ring finger in the sketch at left. This can be done with a simple set of arcs, with fingernails inserted. Then other fingers can easily be put in place. Tones are casually defined to show recession, and the drawing can be totally refined. At this point go back to the side view hand in the previous drawing and review this sequence.





If the hand were reversed and drawn from a rear view, as done previously, finger lengths could also be deduced from the index finger and carried into the rear series. Try looking at each finger crease as if it were within an arc connected to the other fingers. Then note fingertip relationships. The forms in space can be worked carefully, section by section. The finger variations here are modest ones. More dramatic ones can be tried by using tracing paper for a new sequence. Try turning this page around and looking at the drawing from a different view. Then reorder the finger positions, exploring new positions and feeling tones.

MULTIPLE FINGERS—FRONT VIEW This sketch shows a front multiple-finger view of the hand and the receding arm. The fingers are both extended and partially closed. It is a rather complex treatment of the problem of discovering new finger positions and examining total hand actions. The little finger is shown in three phases, the thumb in four, and the other fingers in two. Most aspects are developed transparently, which helps in making judgments about placement and measurement. It is important to train your imagination with multiple views as shown here, and it will be useful for you to come back to this chapter at a later time for further ideas and refinement.

8. THE HAND AS AN INSTRUMENT

While most anatomical structures tend to serve discrete and specialized ends, the hand, because of its plasticity, is designed to serve a wide range of needs. In a certain position, with only slight shifts in tension or direction, it can be used for very different purposes and can even express very different meanings. You will see this subtle shift in use and meaning in the drawings in this chapter. After you have explored the various ways the hand can function as a tool or an instrument as shown here, go on to other exercises of your own and explore new possibilities of the hand as an instrument.

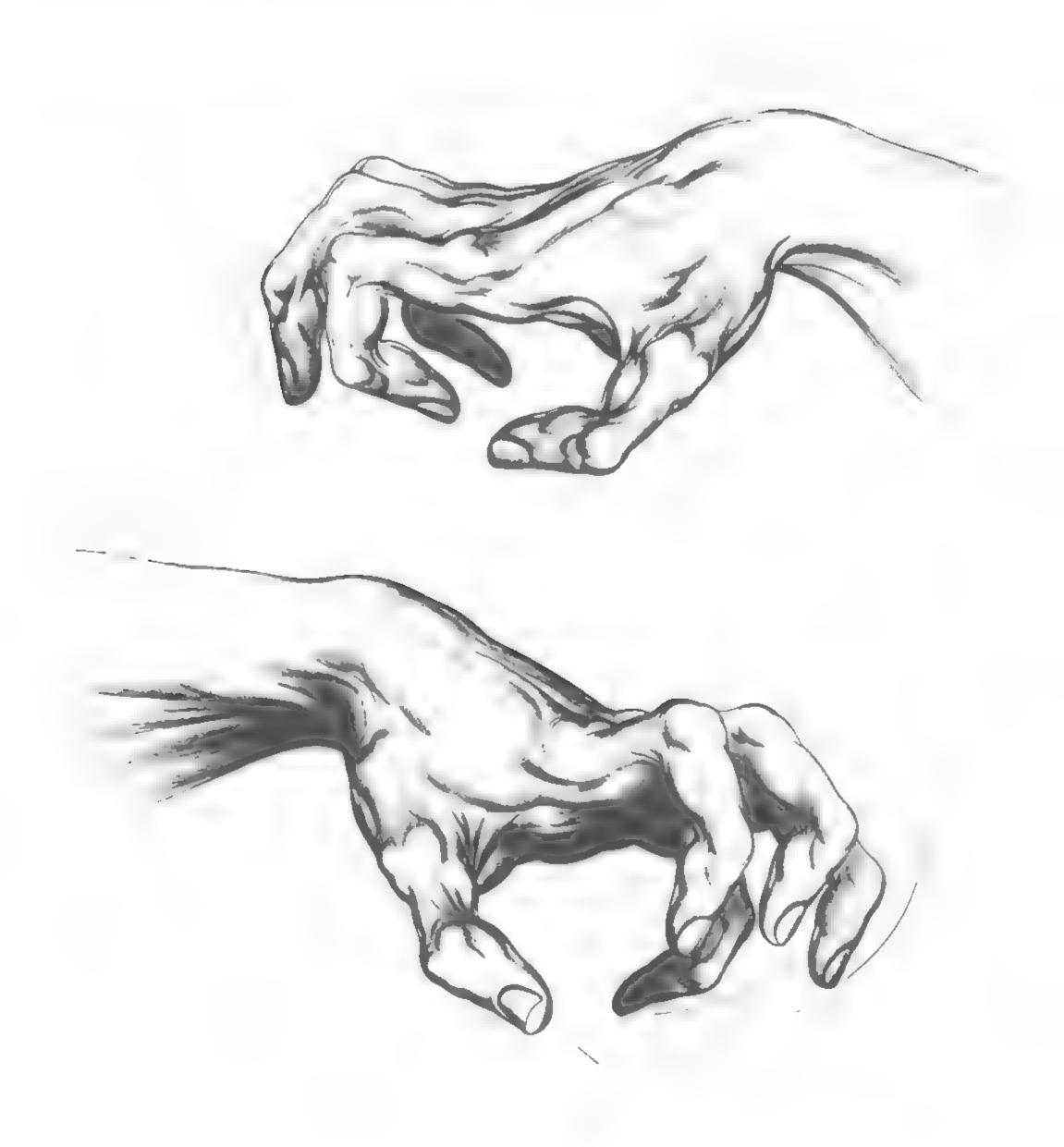






THE HAND AS A CLAW

With fingers open, spread, and half-flexed like claws, the versatile hand takes on the function of a rake or scraper, as in the upper sketch, or a comb or grappling hook, as shown below. Note the cramped look of the upper hand, obvicusly taut for dealing with stubborn grit or gravel. The somewhat open fingers below are more appropriate for running gently through the hair.



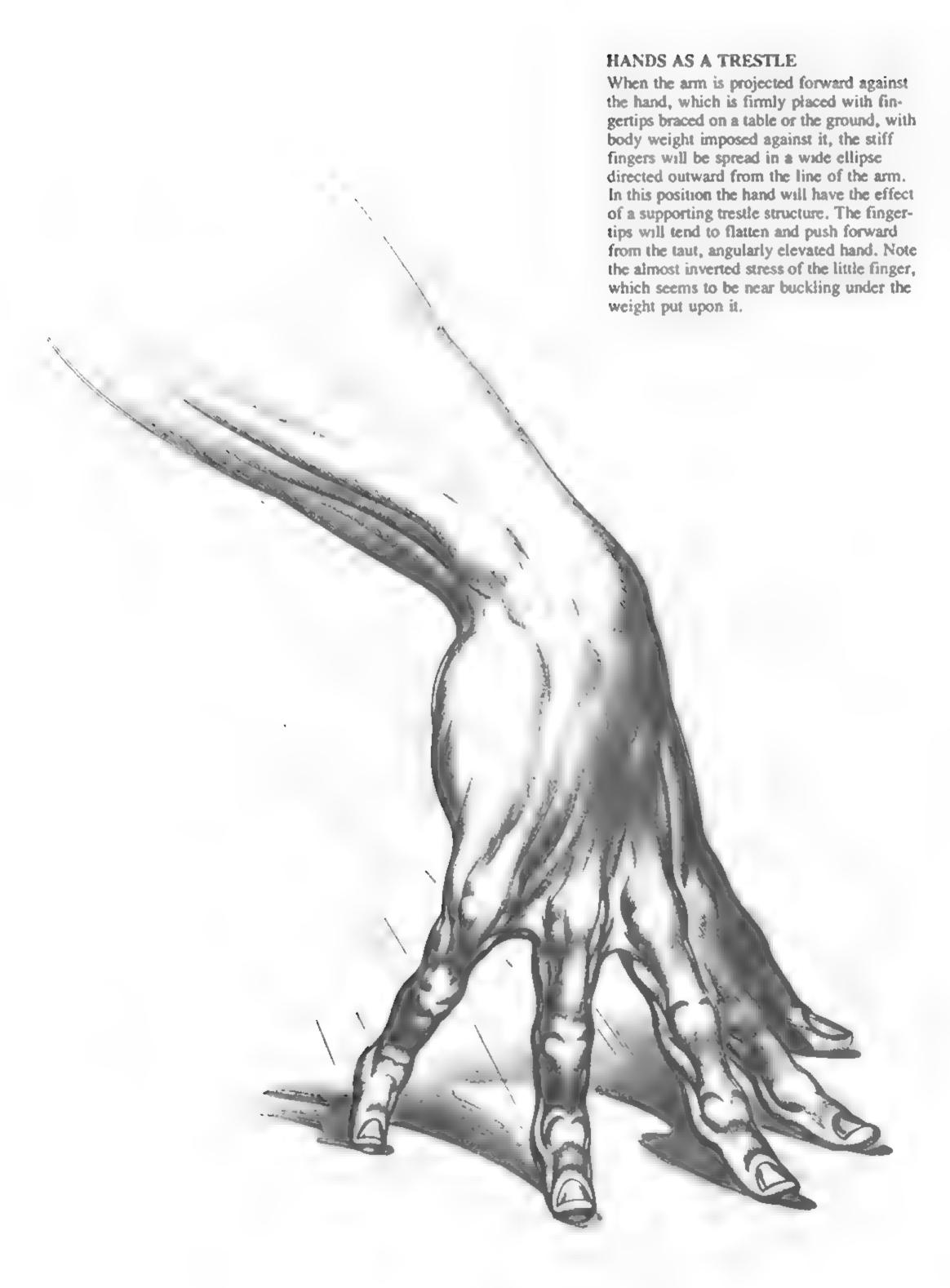








The hand can also act as a cup or a bowl, with fingers extended in a circle holding something, as shown from the side view in the upper drawing and from front view in the lower. This is a remarkable change from the hand as a tool, a club, a cleaver. Here the hand must respond to an object outside itself, the object actually governing the contour the hand takes on.





HAND AS A DIGGING TOOL

As the entire hand projects down at a sharp angle from the thrust-out arm, close-set fingers projecting down from the palm knuckles, the hand becomes a digging tool. The form here is a spatulate, flat wedge discussed at the beginning of this chapter. If the hand were to act as a spade or shovel, both the direction and the action of the hand would be reversed.

HANDS AS A BASKET

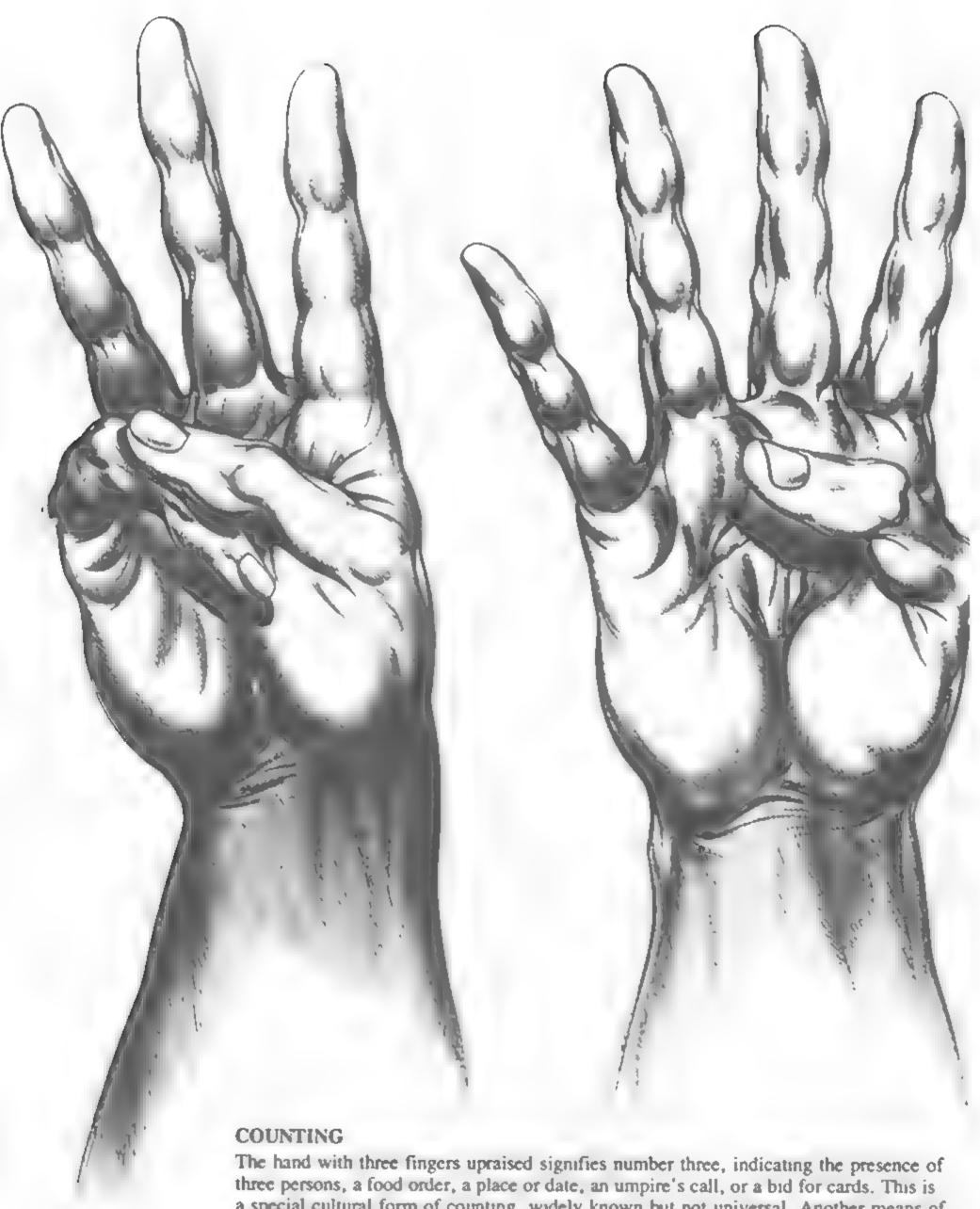
To draw hands in the position of a basket or a sling requires exacting control in finger placement. Alternating elements dovetail as bony knuckles interlock with the compressed and cushioned finger shanks. This position creates a rhythmic series of undulations, with its carefully articulated rod and ball forms. Note the fingernails gradually turning toward the underside of the basket, becoming less and less round down to the disappearing fingers. Attention to these minimal forms is as important as to the curves and shadows of the large thumbs.



9. COMMUNICATION AND GESTURE

The hand not only functions as a tool, it also communicates meaning and experience, supporting facial and bodily expression. These meanings often go beyond the level of verbal expression and are meant to be picked up by the acute swiftness of the eye. In this chapter we shall look at some typical and well-known gestures, and study how only the gestures made by the hand could communicate the meaning intended. Some gestures discussed here are cultural and cross-cultural, still carrying close to their original historical meanings such as the concept of number, the concept of leadership and deity, and both ancient and modern sign





The hand with three fingers upraised signifies number three, indicating the presence of three persons, a food order, a place or date, an umpire's call, or a bid for cards. This is a special cultural form of counting, widely known but not universal. Another means of counting puts both hands to work. One hand is closed into a fist, and the opposite index finger tallies off each number as the fingers flip out of the fist, starting with the little finger as number one. The result could be the drawing at right. If number five is required, the thumb would be lifted out in open position.

The hand at left with three fingers out also carries religious connotations, signifying the powers of the divine, three in one. But in formal, orthodox Catholic usage, the finger order shown here is not appropriate. The fingers must be the *first* three, starting with the thumb, not the middle three.







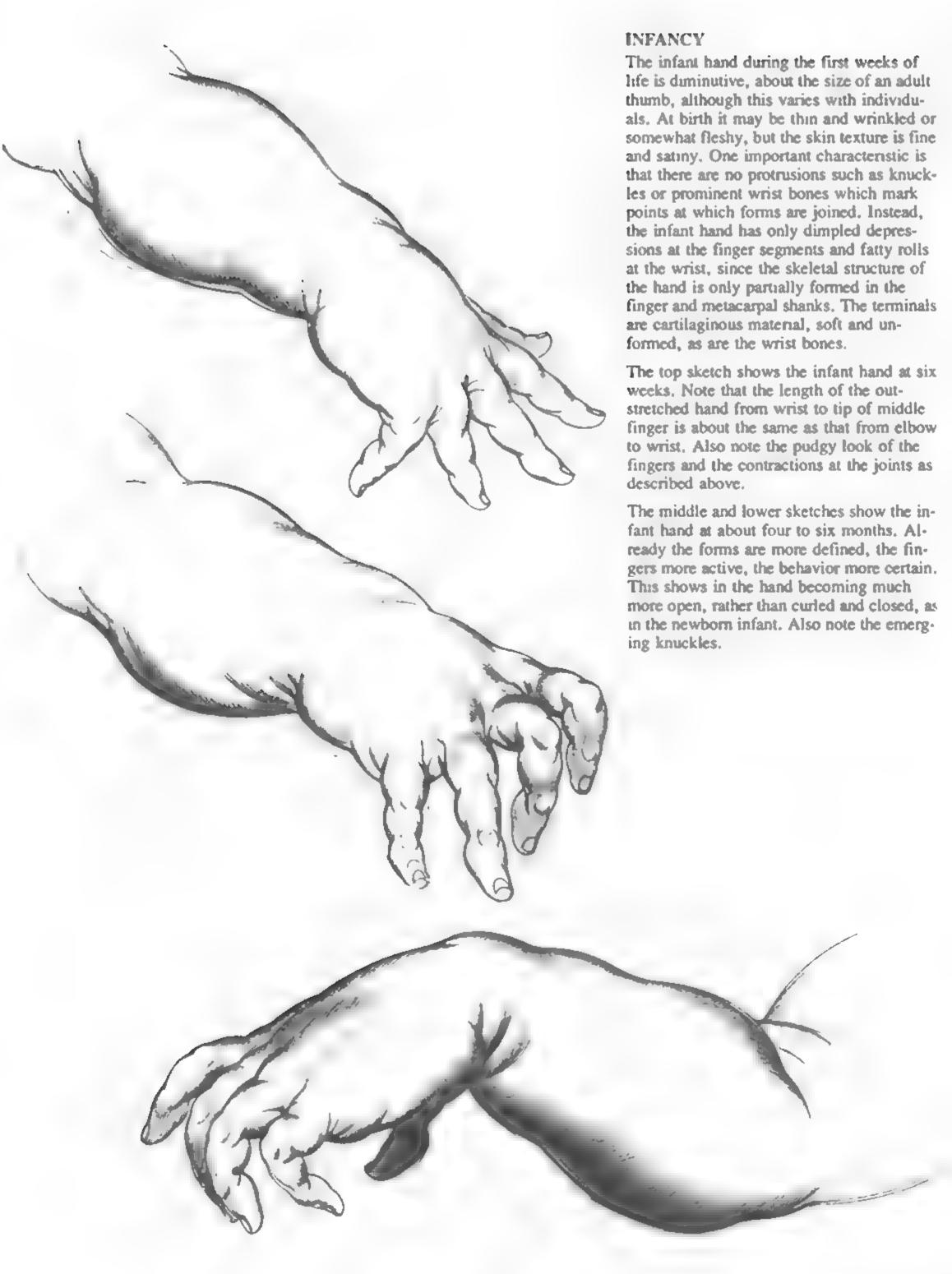
HISTORICAL MEANINGS-





10. AGING

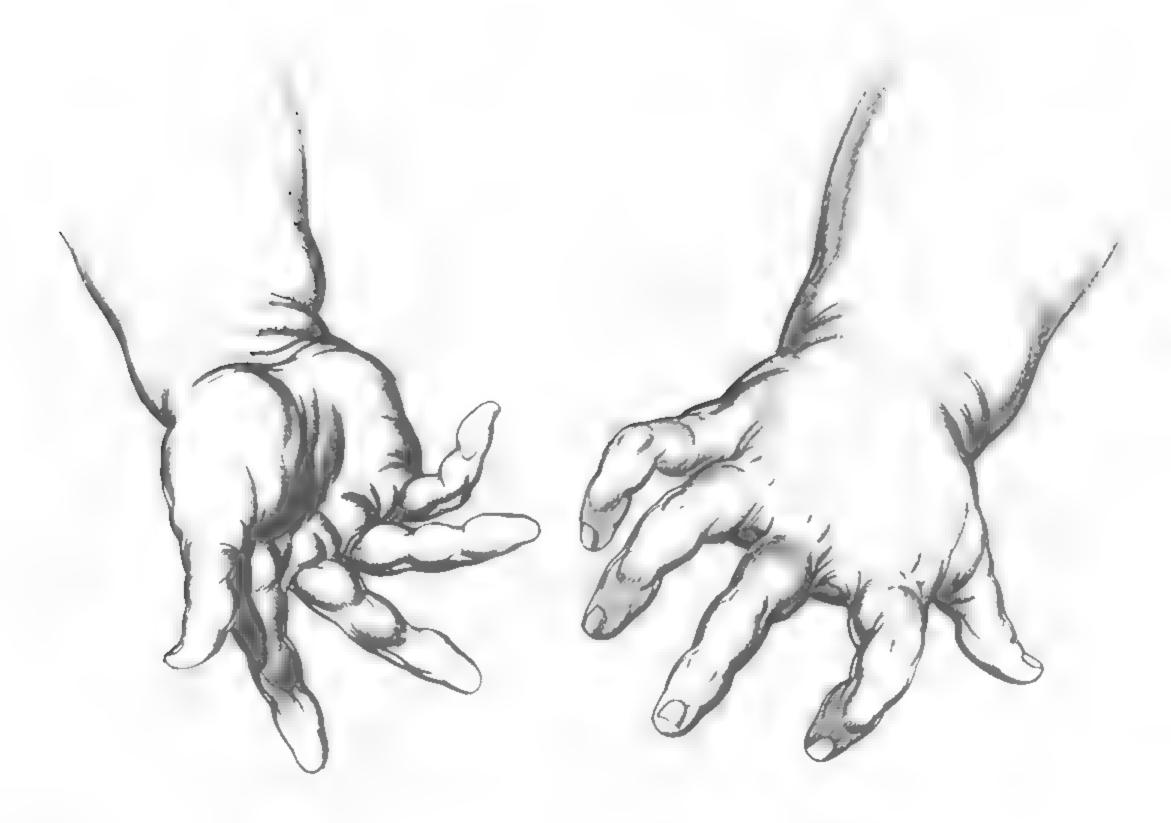
The hand changes radically from infancy to old age, not only in size, proportion, and structure, but also in skin texture, tissue structure, and surface characteristics such as hair density, pigmentation, and size, shape, and texture of fingernails. Its dexterity and capabilities, its responsiveness, its range of gestures, and the subtlety of its emotional communications also change. Studies of the developmental and aging aspects of the hand have sometimes been overlooked in anatomical works. This chapter will trace the development of the hand from infancy to old age.

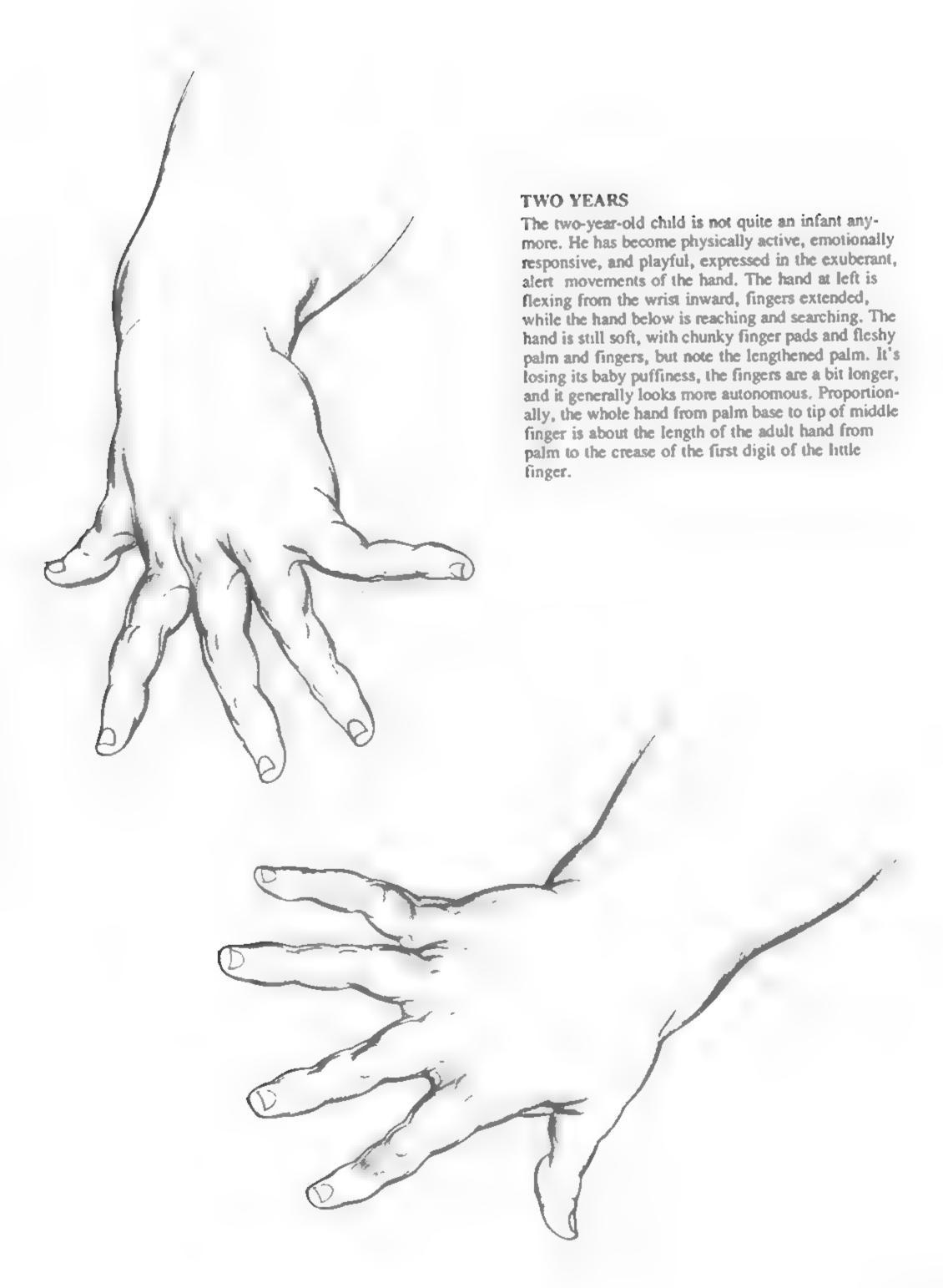


INFANCY TO ONE YEAR

The general character of the baby's hand does not change substantially during the first year. The forms are still squat, square, and fleshy, with little strong delineation between forms. Both dorsal and palmar sides of the hand are palpable and chubby, with dainty shell-like fingernails. Yet the hands of a one-year-old child have begun to move with more certainty—probing, seeking, feeling. The hand is the first form to project into and explore an unfamiliar world.



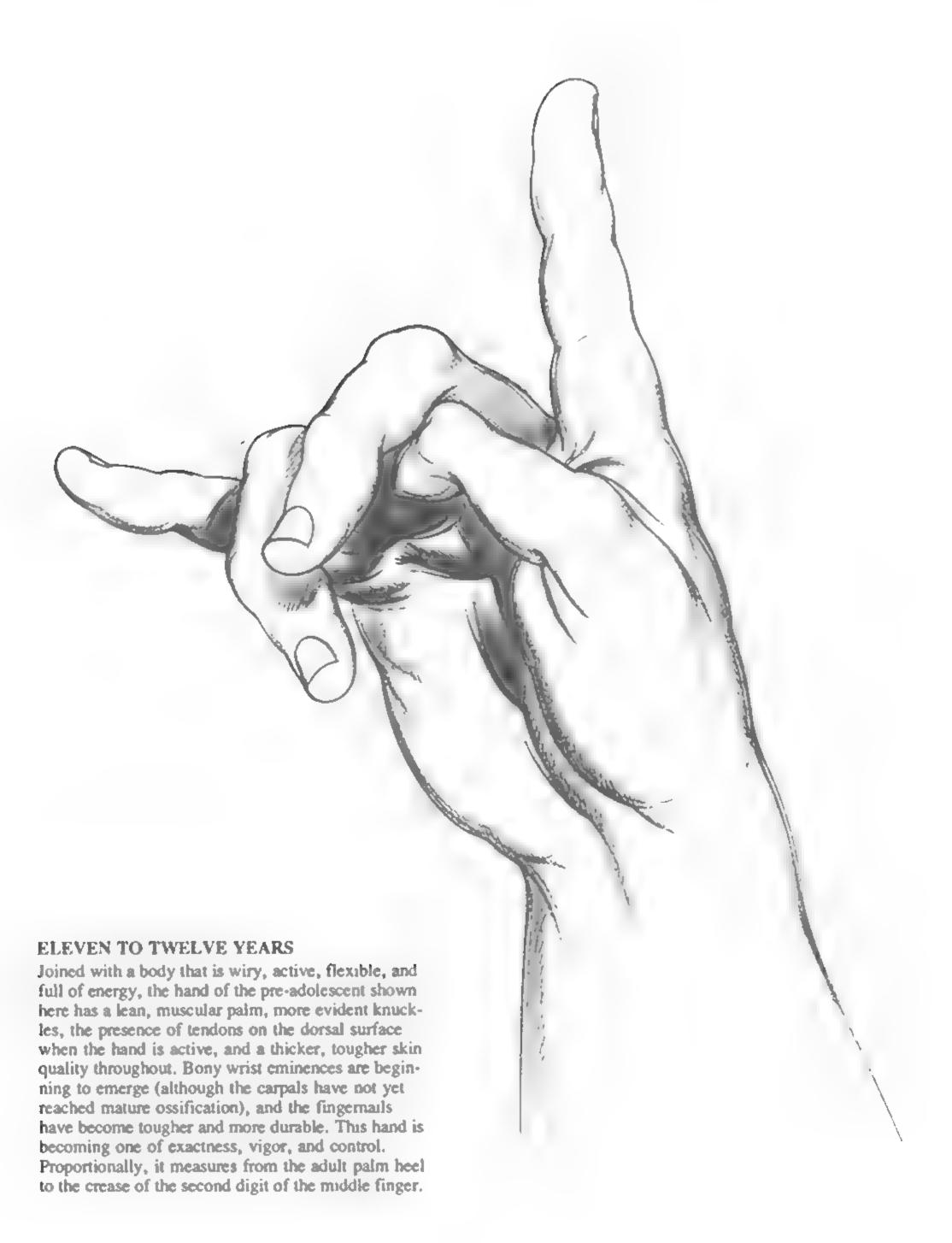


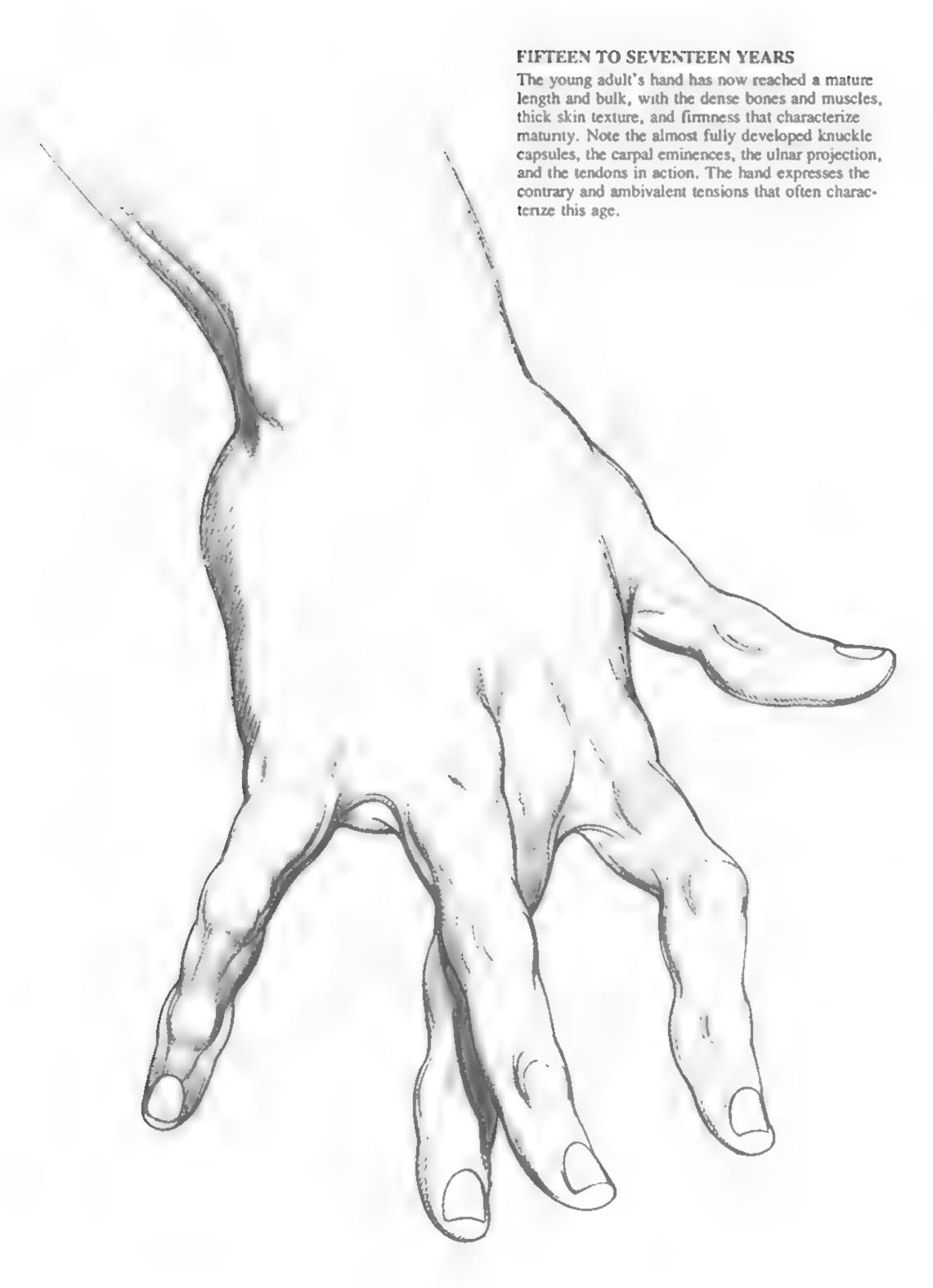




SEVEN TO EIGHT YEARS

The hand of the seven- to eight-year-old child is characterized by a leaner aspect throughout. The stubby, chunky look is gone. The fingers are longer, the skin is still smooth, but tougher; the tips are flatter; and the nails are stronger and more durable. Knuckles no longer sink in dimpled recessions, but are clearly evident. The wrist and arm shank are taut and competent and have lost their baby softness. The hand is active and full of fantasy, releasing feeling and exhibiting heightened finger dexterity. The child at this stage will reveal a wide sphere of physical activity, reveling in acts that are vivid, imaginative, and pragmatic. Compared to the adult hand, this child's hand will measure from the heel of the adult palm to the second digit of the index finger.

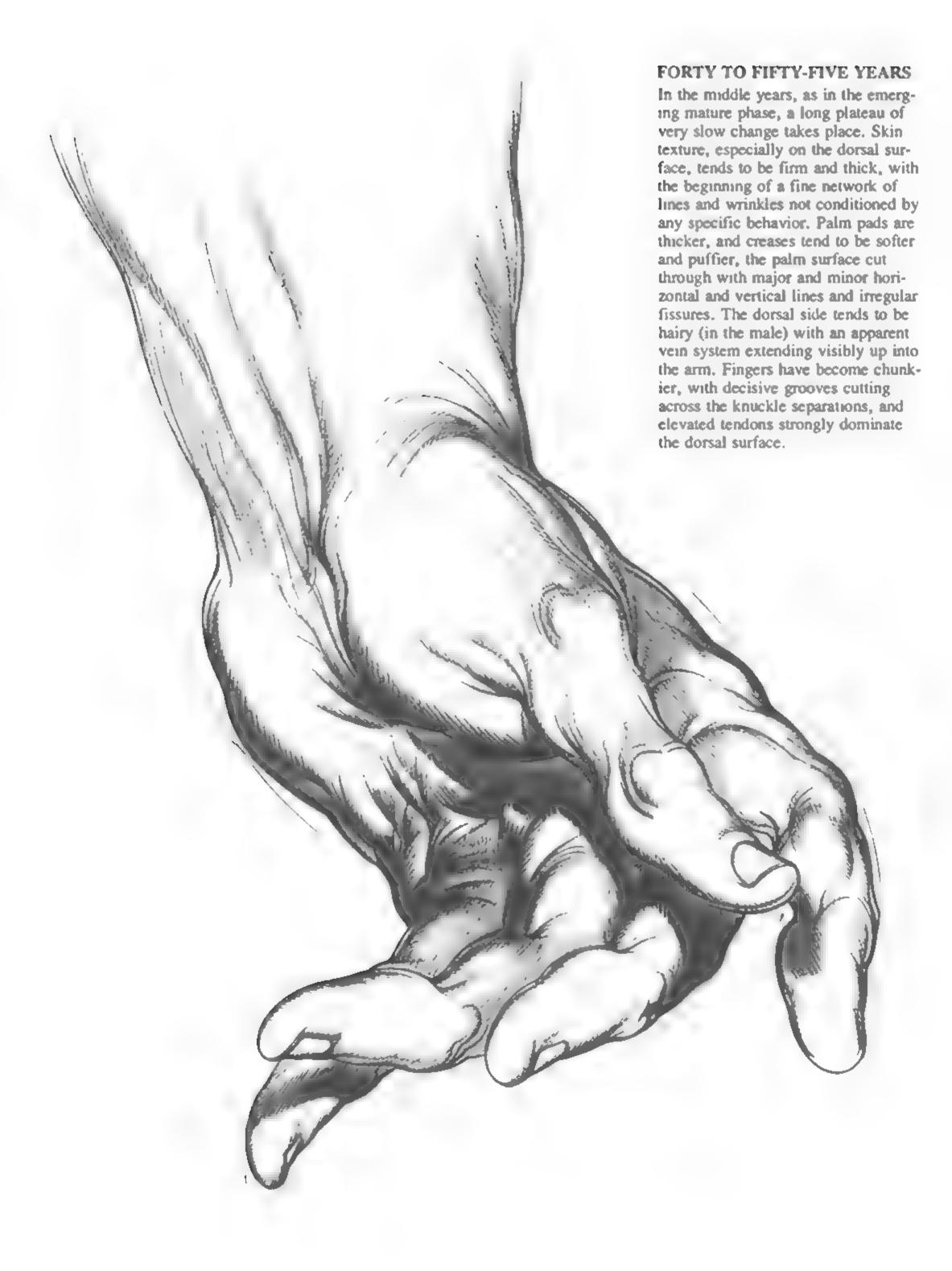






TWENTY TO TWENTY-FIVE YEARS

The most striking changes that occur in the mature hand after twenty years of age are in behavior. A more purposeful, well-coordinated behavior emerges, as shown in the assertive energies of the hand here. The mature hand you draw may be intellectual or physical, depending on its expression, but it is important that it be thematically whole and coordinated in its parts.

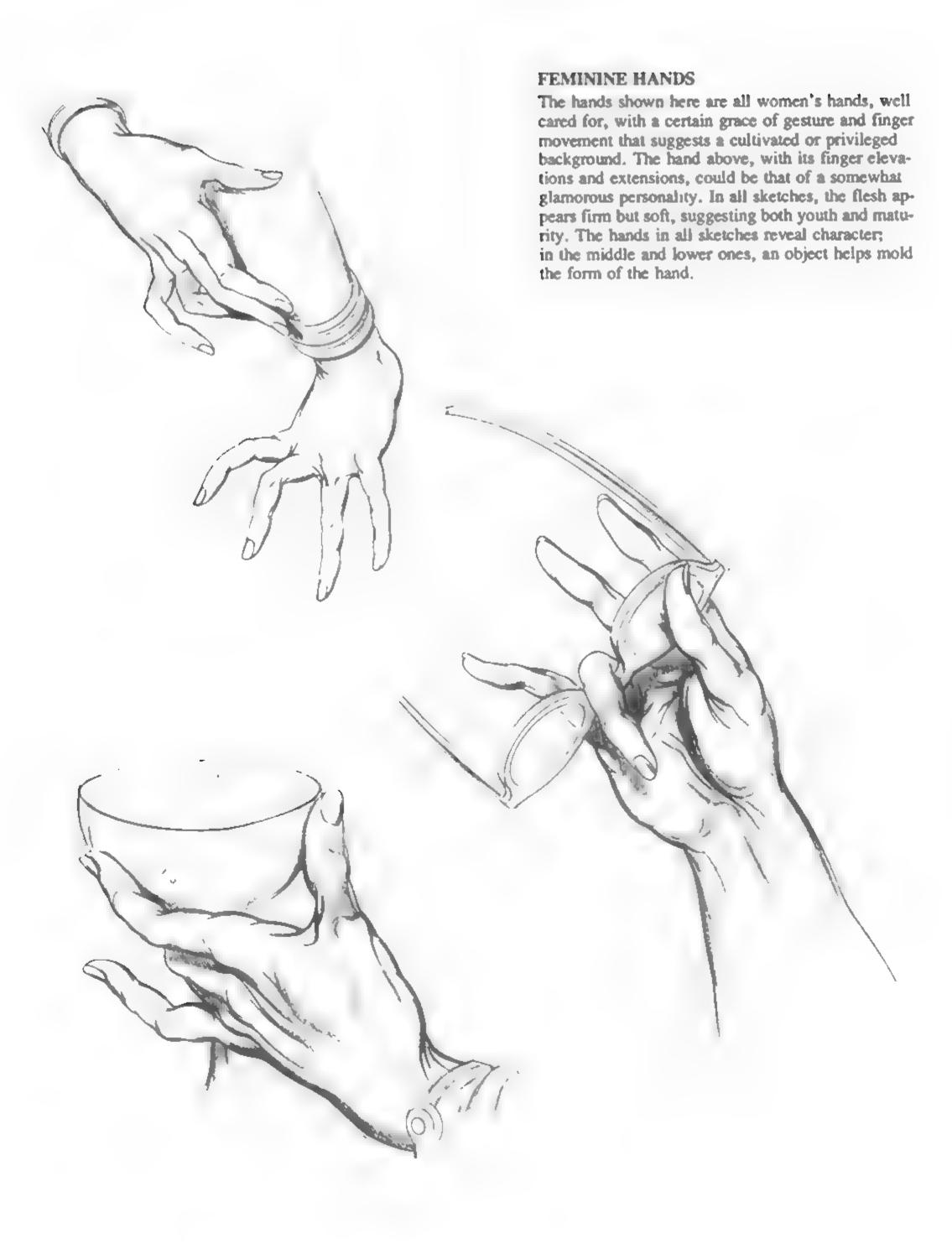






11. HAND BEHAVIOR AND OCCUPATIONS

Drawing hands involved in various occupations can be either prosaic or exciting. Since the hand is the most plastic part of the anatomy, it can fit around or grasp an infinite variety of shapes in countless positions. Thus an enormous variety of occupations can involve highly complex use of the hands. Occupations often require the use of some kind of utensil or tool to which the hand must adapt itself. The kind of drawing one does of the hand working at various occupations is determined to a great extent by the instrument the hand must use. In this chapter you will see how the element of design plays an important part in executing not only a visually clear but also a visually appealing drawing of the hand involved in an occupation.





DESIGNING A TECHNICIAN'S HAND

Bringing out the eloquence of a prosaic subject takes great skill. Here the hands of a technician using laboratory instruments could become both dull and difficult. But not if a design concept is incorporated. In this drawing the focal point of the design is the instruments connecting at an angle. All the fingers relate to this angle, and the veins of the lower hand restate the design theme. Both the lower little finger pointing toward the vector center and the angle of the arm follow the dominant direction of the design.

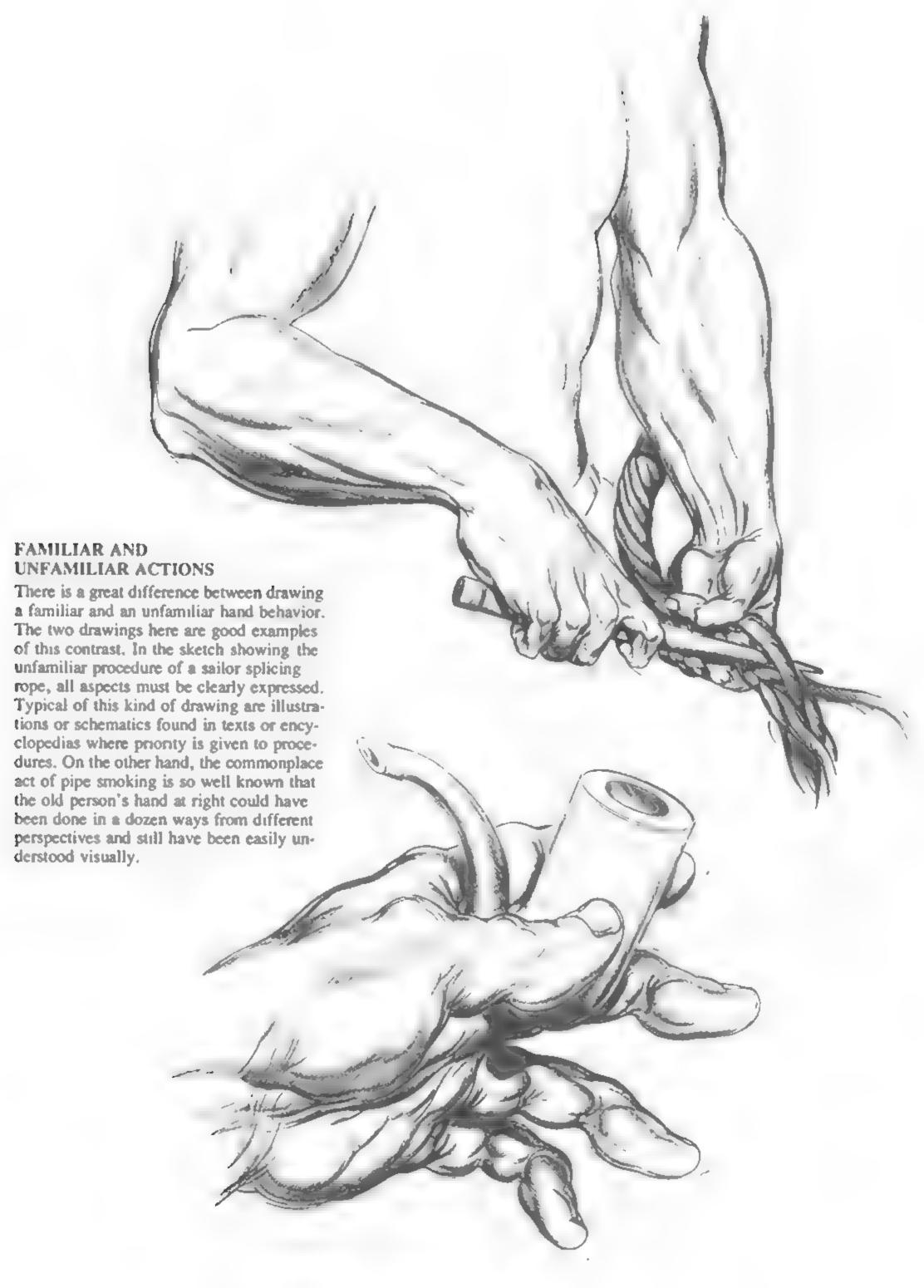
HAND ACTIONS WITH AN INFLEXIBLE OBJECT

In a drawing of a hand held against a hard, unyielding object, the hand is not the primary concern in the initial stage. This sketch illustrates how the hand must relate convincingly to the structure of the guitar, once its position and design have been established. The hands have a special configuration for playing, and a good reference source such as a photograph or a live model should be used to make sure this is accurate before proceeding with drawing refinements such as form stresses, finger tensions, wrist bends, and fingertip contacts and pressures. Shaded accents and cast shadows are also necessary to let the eye see where one form relates to another or to understand the correct positioning of the arm or fingers over the guitar. This drawing is not a finished one. If you feel the need to sketch in more tones or accents, do so.



VARIATIONS IN HAND ATTITUDES

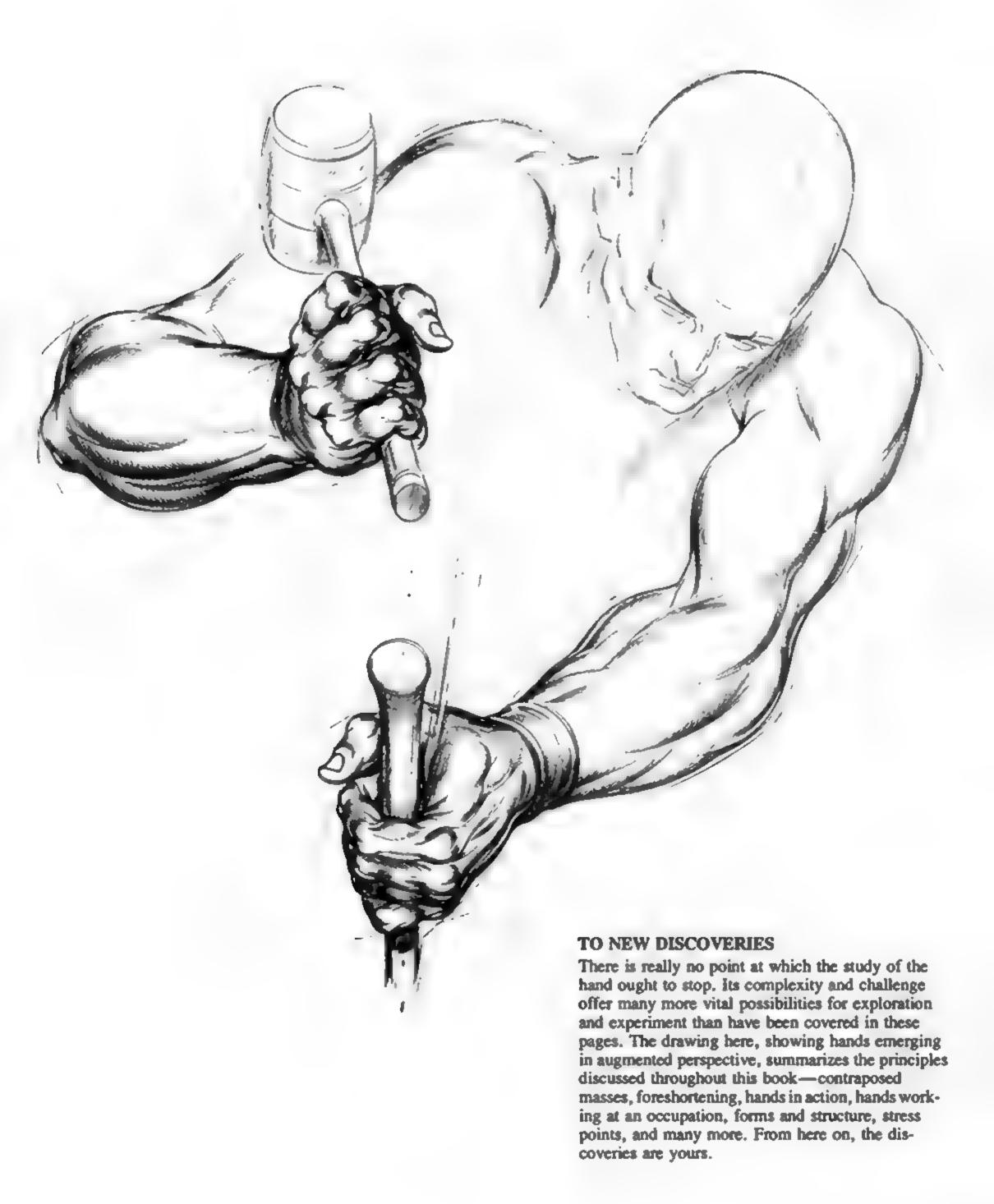
The hands of a woman playing chess and pondering a move while smoking a cigarette present a challenging array of possibilities, contrasts, and form contrapositions. The crossed-over hand toying with a chess piece lets both hands create a provocative gesture. The right arm and hand support from below. The reverse direction of the cigarette sends the design flow back to the chess-playing hand. Note that the kinds of open-ended variations shown here are quite different from the constraints demanded by drawing hands playing a guitar.



FREEDOM AND RESTRICTION IN SUBJECT

Again, the two drawings here are a contrast—this time between the restrictions imposed by an object in the hands and complete freedom. In the drawing at right, the violin restricts hand position and behavior to its configurations. This would also be true for behavior or maneuvers where machines or implements are used. By contrast, the sketch at left is free and playful, and subject to numerous interpretations. Drawing this form allows the imagination free rein and is much less demanding than the one at right.





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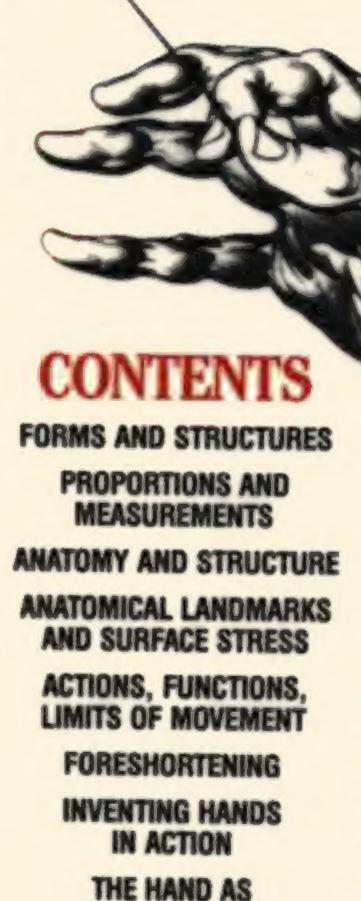
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The author received his education and art background in Chicago, Illinois, where he was born and where he started a diversified professional career which embraces nearly thirty years of experience in art education, fine art, magazine illustration, advertising, and newspaper art. He achieved worldwide recognition with his illustrations for the Sunday newspaper illustrated feature Tarzan and has since published Terzan of the Apes and Jungle Tales of Tarzan in book form. His cartoons, drawings, prints, and paintings

- A member of the Board of Governors at the National Cartbonists Bociety and Chairman of its Professional Comm Mogerth was awarded the Society's silver plaquerfor best in the special features " category in 1974-75, and for best ip advertising and illustration in 1975-76. He was also named cartoonist of the year in 1975 at the million of Humor in w



